

The Nation

VOL. XXXVIII.—NO. 975.

THURSDAY, MARCH 6, 1884.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1883,	1,530,232 53
Total Marine Premiums,	\$5,708,185 63

Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1883, to 31st December, 1883,	\$4,260,428 93
Losses paid during the same period,	\$1,901,042 38

Returns of Premiums and Expenses,	\$850,080 76
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The Company has the following Assets, viz.: United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank and other Stocks,	\$8,600,705 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise,	1,956,500 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at,	425,000 00
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable,	1,588,306 79
Cash in Bank,	325,710 08
Amount,	\$12,972,312 47

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Interest,	74,998 13
Profit and Loss,	20,581 57
Total Receipts,	\$255,896 21

Disbursements in Year 1883.

Paid Death Claims,	\$90,583 47
Endowments,	37,646 70
Policies Surrendered,	11,814 65
Dividends,	20,414 63
All other disbursements,	50,816 40
Total Disbursements,	\$211,275 55

Assets Jan 1, 1884,	\$1,450,398 42
Liabilities, Connecticut and Massachusetts standard,	1,126,791 50
Surplus to Policy-holders,	305,609 92
Surplus to Policy-holders, N. Y. standard,	382,811 92

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The Nation.

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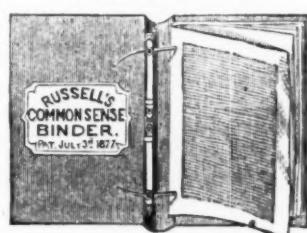
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 6, 1884.

The Week.

THE decision of the Supreme Court as to the validity of the reissued legal tenders finally settles the question as to the control of Congress over the currency, and any settlement is better than such a state of doubt and uncertainty as has prevailed since the close of the war. The most singular thing about the decision is that it is nearly unanimous—Judge Field alone writing a dissenting opinion—although in 1870 the court decided, by a vote of five to three, that Congress had no constitutional power to make its notes legal tender in the payment of preexisting debts. A change in the composition of the court resulted next year in a reversal of this decision by a bare majority, but four judges still maintained that the legal-tender acts were unconstitutional. The decision of the judges who supported the constitutionality of the acts was made to turn then upon the "war power"; that is, the power of Congress when the country is at war to do whatever is necessary to make war effective; but it was never clearly explained, either by these judges or by any of their supporters, how forcing creditors to take its notes from their debtors at par when they were quoted in the markets of the country at less than par, made it at all easier to put down the rebellion. The "war power" could not be introduced into the present case at all, because the notes on which it turned were received, under the act of 1878, in time of profound peace. The court has accordingly given up any attempt to resort to it at all, and rests the legal-tender acts solely upon the power to "borrow money" in time of peace as well as in war. The question when and how far the power ought to be exercised is "a political question, to be determined by Congress when the question of exigency arises, and not a judicial question to be afterwards passed upon by the courts."

Those who recall the early history of the legal-tender controversy will see at once that the judges, in their determination to uphold the acts, have reversed in a curious way the reasoning by which they were originally maintained. The real reason why the court originally resorted to the "war power" was because it was so strongly urged by most constitutional lawyers that the power to "borrow money" did not include the power to issue legal-tender notes. As the notes in this case were issued in time of peace, the court has now had to fall back on the very support which the judges then rejected as plainly too weak for reliance. The system of construction adopted in this case is one which weakens the court itself, and enlarges the power of Congress, and makes a long stride in the direction of centralization. The court insists upon the fact that Congress may, under the Constitution, pass all laws which are "necessary and proper" for "carrying into execution" its expressly granted powers; but this circum-

stance does not really strengthen their position, for this clause has never, from the foundation of the Government, been held to enlarge any of the powers expressly granted. Any further discussion of the power of Congress to make legal-tender notes would be a waste of time, but it is certainly not a waste of time to call attention to the fact that the court, in remitting the whole matter to Congress by this very latitudinarian system of construction, is really in so far abdicating the protection of private rights and private property against the encroachments of the Legislature.

It seems to be generally acknowledged in Massachusetts, as well as elsewhere, that the Boston Reform Club was rather too hasty in proposing a conference of "Liberal reformers" to nominate candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency. Nothing is more necessary to a new party than a perfectly distinct conception of its wants. It is not enough to feel uncomfortable or discontented. The wisdom of waiting to see what the Democrats and Republicans will do, we believe, commends itself thoroughly to Independents in this State at least, and will certainly commend itself to their calmer judgment in every State. This waiting policy, too, is the best means of getting good nominations from one or other if not both of the conventions. The managing men on both sides are just now passing through a period of great perplexity, and we must be very patient with them. The problem before them is to satisfy "the boys" without offending the Independents, and it is one of enormous difficulty, the Independents have since 1882 become so haughty and exacting. The complete disappearance of the old ridicule of them from the party organs is one sign of the times which indicates a great deal. There is an evident disposition, indeed, on the part of even the most practical of the politicians "to pander," as the late Fernando Wood is reported to have once said, "to honesty and efficiency."

The President has made a change in the Pension Agency at Philadelphia which is a more flagrant violation of civil-service reform principles than the Biglin appointment was in this city. General Horatio G. Sickel, a soldier with an honorable record, has been Pension Agent at Philadelphia for twelve years. He has managed the office on strict business principles, and with such ability and efficiency as to command the approbation of all classes except the "boys." He took no active part in politics, and refused to "run" the office in the interest of the Quay-Cameron Machine. His continuance in office was warmly recommended by Senator Mitchell, by a majority of the Pennsylvania Congressional delegation, and by all the respectable citizens of Philadelphia. Against him were the "boys," who demanded the bestowal of the place upon one of their own number, John M. Vanderslice, who seems to have many of the qualifications for political position which are peculiar to the Johnnies of this lat-

itude. Only one view of the appointment is held in Philadelphia and at Washington. The correspondent of the *Philadelphia Times* says it is universally regarded as evidence that the President "has entered into a contract with the Machine in Pennsylvania" by which the delegation is to be made solid for him. One of the Philadelphia Congressmen says the appointment could be paralleled in New York only by the removal of Mr. Pearson as Postmaster and the appointment of Barney Biglin in his place. Senator Mitchell and Judge Kelly are particularly indignant about it, and will make every effort to defeat confirmation in the Senate.

The only business event of importance during the week has been the virtual break down of the "bull movement" in stocks. This movement was mainly artificial, being nothing else than the desperate endeavor of a few large operators to draw the public into a speculation for an advance. It has failed completely, and the result has been an average decline of two and a half points during the week, following upon a decline of about two points in the previous week. Lackawanna has been an exception, having been "cornered" on Saturday to the great sorrow of the bears. It is one of the few properties selling at a higher price to day than the quotation of one year ago. Gold to the amount of \$3,500,000 in double eagles has been drawn out of the Sub-Treasury, and it was for some days a puzzle to the Street what had become of it, since only \$2,100,000 appeared in the treasure lists of outgoing steamers or in the inland shipments of the express companies. It was ascertained subsequently that it had been taken by certain drawers of sterling exchange in anticipation of their requirements. They seem to have apprehended that the Treasury might interpose some obstacles to their getting double eagles, which are the only sort of coin that can be exported at a profit at the present rates of exchange. It should be stated that the Treasury has not exercised any arbitrary powers whatsoever in the premises, but has been administered upon the most enlightened principles. Business failures for the week are rather more numerous than during the preceding week, the figures being 237 against 218. The difference may be ascribed to the holiday which came in the previous week. General trade has been rather more sluggish than last week, but the best judges attribute the slackening to the extremely bad weather which has prevailed everywhere.

The bill reported by the Public Lands Committee of the House to forfeit all the lands of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company not earned prior to July 1, 1879, bears the evident marks of buncombe. It has been judicially established that in a case where a railway, endowed with a land grant, has failed of completion within the prescribed time, the grant continues good until Congress declares a forfeiture. The grant remaining in force, it follows that whatever might be done if the time

had not expired may still be done—that is, that the company may go on building and earning the lands and acquiring title thereto, and that the Executive departments of the Government must perform the same duties that they would have been obliged to perform if the time had not expired. These duties are merely clerical, consisting in the appointment of commissioners to examine the road from time to time, as new sections are built, and in the issue of certificates for the corresponding lands. The law provides that the certificates shall convey the title. It provides in some cases—we do not know whether the Northern Pacific case is one of them—that the title shall be conveyed in no other way. Land patents are not necessary to secure titles. It was shown conclusively, in the discussion of these questions two years ago, that the General Land Office and the Interior Department had strenuously resisted and opposed this interpretation of the law, and had sought to declare forfeitures on their own motion until overruled by the Supreme Court, since when they had followed the decisions of that tribunal as construed from time to time by the Attorney-General. It should be added that the Department has regularly brought all these facts to the attention of Congress, in order that forfeitures might be declared, if deemed requisite, by the only power in the Government capable of enforcing them.

Years have rolled on under this state of facts, and some sixty millions of dollars have been invested on the faith of the law and the decisions and the practice of the Government. The parties furnishing the bulk of the money are bondholders in no wise interested in the Northern Pacific as a speculation. The road has been completed as a through-line, and has thus far disappointed the expectations of the builders. Regarded as a money-making venture, it is not calculated to excite envy, and it may well be doubted whether any political party or any Congressman has anything to gain in the way of popularity by striking it when it is down. The preferred stock of the company, which was paid for in cash at par more than ten years ago, is now worth less than fifty cents on the dollar. Under such circumstances the bill to forfeit all the lands not earned prior to July 1, 1879—that is, all lands not earned up to the time of the Jay Cooke failure, when work substantially ceased—cannot be esteemed either good law or good demagogery. Under the decisions of the Supreme Court its effect, if passed by Congress and approved by the President, would be merely to forfeit the lands flanking those portions of the line still uncompleted, viz., the Columbia River, Cascade, and Wisconsin branches.

The House Committee on Inter-State Commerce have seen fit to report a bill (much more reasonable, indeed, than the Reagan bill) which seeks to prohibit pools and combinations among railways. It has been sufficiently proved in the past, by the steady and almost unvarying decline in railway charges, especially on lines of traffic where the greatest amount of attention is given to the art of

"pooling," that no such legislation is needed to bring about minimum rates for transportation—that is, the lowest rates consistent with cost of hauling, maintenance, and a moderate rate of interest on the capital actually invested. There is nothing more certain in the book of fate than that railway competition will yield the same harvest of low profits or no profits that competition in other trades has produced and always tends to produce—and this too, in spite of the best efforts of the ablest pool commissioners. When new capital comes crowding the market for investment its first impulse is toward railway building, because hitherto the largest fortunes have been made in that field. It looks about for some line of traffic where it is known or believed that "stock-watering" has been practised to an unwarrantable extent. It reasons that here must be a chance for profit because a new road can be built for much less than the nominal cost of the old one. The new road is built, it is taken into the pool, the profits of the combination are so reduced that cutting of rates begins, and the force of competition reasserts itself. But even if the pool can maintain itself and prevent rate-cutting, it will have learned by experience that it is only by doing business at the lowest rates possible that additional railways can be kept out and further and more disastrous competition prevented. The proposed legislation will probably prove futile when the attempt is made to enforce it. In the long run it will be found to be unnecessary, as regards its main purpose of securing the lowest attainable rates of transportation.

Mr. Henry C. Lea, of Philadelphia, in a letter to the *Tribune* published on Saturday, complains of Professor Lounsbury for failing to consider and discuss his suggestion that the Dorsheimer bill may be made satisfactory to everybody by embodying in it "the principle recognized in all copyright laws forbidding the importation of all books covered by copyright—with the simple extension that no license shall be held to permit such importation." We have had no communication with Professor Lounsbury on the subject, but we think we can tell Mr. Lea why he refuses to discuss the suggestion, and this is because the principle to which Mr. Lea refers is intended to protect *authors*, and he proposes to pervert it so as to protect manufacturers. The author may now either allow or prevent the importation of foreign editions of his book, at his pleasure; the change proposed is to take away his right to make the choice, in the interest of the manufacturer; and this is what Mr. Lea calls *extending the principle of copyright*.

The old Tory squire who corresponds with the *Tribune* from London has evidently been thrown into a very nervous condition by the dynamite explosions. He says the language of the English press "shows signs of reaching the limits of patience," and that, "in private, Englishmen of known friendship are asking whether that country really means to persevere in giving refuge to Irish scoundrels and license to Irish crime until Europe, unjustly or justly, shall come to re-

gard America as the Alsatia of Christendom." There is a want of clearness in this which is unworthy of a Justice of the Peace, which the writer probably is. He must know that "signs" that English newspapers are going to use strong language, are not likely to be alarming in America, where newspapers use strong language all the time, without any dynamite at all. The squire himself often gets to "the limits of patience" in his writing without rousing or frightening anybody. When his friends ask him, too, whether America is going to "persevere" in all those dreadful things, he should remind them that they are begging the question; that it has still to be proved that the country is "giving refuge to Irish scoundrels" and "license to Irish crime," in some other way than by gabble at dinner-tables. If they then persist in regarding America as "the Alsatia of Christendom," we would advise the squire simply to change the subject. An "Alsatia of Christendom" is something too dreadful to talk about long at a time.

No one disputes for a moment the general principle that it is the duty of our Government to prevent the use of its territory for the purpose of making attacks upon the Government or citizens of England; and it is not open to us, after the *Alabama* controversy, to put in as a defence that we have not laws which enable us to do this. If we have not, Congress has got to pass them, or else to take the consequences. This was the rule that we compelled England to adopt, and she paid us \$15,500,000 for violating it. But the difficulty with dynamite raids is a purely practical one. In the case of an armed expedition, like a Fenian raid in Canada, or the fitting out of a Cuban privateer, overt acts have to be committed in this country. Men have to be enlisted, uniformed, equipped, fed, and paid; provisions, arms, and material have to be bought, and in the case of a ship she has to get out of port. When a plot of this sort is on foot, nothing is easier than for our Government to furnish evidence of what is doing, and if the evidence is sufficient, the ship's arms and materials can be seized, and the men locked up in jail. But in the case of dynamite no such process is possible. One man in a "hall bed-room" can hatch a plot to blow up the Queen and the whole royal family, which cannot be detected and which cannot be punished. To carry it out, all he has to do is to get a little can of nitroglycerine, sail for England, and watch his chance. No law here can prevent this. No overt act is committed here at all, and we cannot possibly be called upon to make it an international crime for an American citizen to purchase nitroglycerine for use against life and property in England. But if we were called upon, and if we did pass it, how could it be executed? It could not be carried into effect without the provision by Congress of a national system of inspection of the manufacture and sale of all explosives, and domiciliary searches for persons suspected of having explosives in their possession. Any attempt to enforce such a law would be at once contested in the courts on constitutional grounds by the persons whose business was affected by it, who would maintain that it

was an intrusion by Congress into the ordinary State jurisdiction over crimes against person and property.

The new Franchise Bill introduced by Mr. Gladstone will be better understood by recalling the statutes under which the present system of representation exists. The Reform Bill of 1832 admitted to the franchise all possessors of land of the annual value of £10, the owners of leases of sixty years of the annual rental value of £50, freeholders of the value of forty shillings, in counties, and the tenants of lands paying a rent of £50 per annum. But the owner of a freehold within a township was excluded from voting in the county in respect of the same property. In Scotland the franchise was actually the creation of the Reform Bill. Three classes were included: First, owners of property worth £10 per annum. Second, tenants on any of the old leases of "three nineteen years" who had a proprietary interest in a lease worth £10 per annum. Third, tenants in occupancy, paying a rent of £50 per annum, or who had paid a "grassum" or fine of £300 as consideration for the lease. In Ireland the two-pound franchise founded on occupancy was abolished, and in lieu of it the bill instituted a two-pound franchise, if supported by copyhold or other property, a ten-pound yearly interest on a lease of sixty years, or a twenty-pound lease of twenty years. From 1832 to 1867 no material change was made in the representation, but in that year Mr. Disraeli made his famous "leap in the dark." "That bill enfranchised in boroughs," says Mr. McCarthy, "all male householders rated for the relief of the poor, and all lodgers resident for one year paying not less than £10 a year rent; and in counties persons owning property of the clear annual rental of £5, and occupants of lands paying £12 a year." The bill introduced by Mr. Gladstone, on Thursday night, puts the three kingdoms on one footing. The £50 rating is abolished, and in place of it the lodger franchise is now extended to counties. An entirely new feature is the "service" franchise. Formerly laborers and agricultural servants residing in their employers' cottages and paying no rent were excluded from rating. These Mr. Gladstone for the first time brings within the English representation. It will be observed that the bill proceeds on the lines of former acts, cutting down existing limits, and introducing but few novelties beyond the "service franchise."

The policy of the English Ministry is, as was clearly foreshadowed by General Gordon, to hold the Red Sea coast, so as to stop the export of slaves to Arabia proper, which is the chief market for the African traders. For this purpose, the possession of Suakin, if not other ports, as well as a rigid maritime patrol, will be necessary. This, too, furnishes really the chief, if not the only, justification for the slaughter of the unfortunate Sudanese by General Graham. They have persisted in besetting the coast towns, which the British are determined to keep, and had been led by the triumph over the Egyptian troops to overestimate their strength. Apart from their desire to start the slave trade

again, their cause is as good a one as has ever been defended in arms. They have been conquered and shamefully misgoverned by a worthless government, and one cannot help admiring the gallantry with which they have laid down their lives, and sympathizing in some degree with the feeling which dictated Sir Wilfrid Lawson's attack on the Ministry on Monday. The butchery of these poor spearmen was undoubtedly sorry work for Mr. Gladstone's Government, and yet—so true is it in politics, as well as in morals, that it is the beginnings which are dangerous—having taken Egypt in hand, there was no way of avoiding it.

The obstinacy of the Arab resistance to General Graham on Friday was of course largely due to ignorance of what the breech-loader can do in the hands of resolute and disciplined men. The Arabs were justified by their experience of the Egyptian troops in supposing that they could break the British square with spears and sabres. They had never until then encountered any other regulars. But the lesson they have now received will probably last them a good while. The fearful slaughter among them and the small loss on the British side show how little they amount to as a fighting force, and how absurd have been the fears that the Mahdi would lead them out of the Sudan to invade Egypt proper, or, as some have suggested, to overrun Europe. Even General Stone's recently expressed anxiety about the Bulak Museum at Cairo becomes, in the light of Friday's fight, somewhat comic reading. There is not the smallest reason to suppose that the Mahdi's own troops differ in any way from those of his lieutenant, Osman Digma. No fanaticism can make a naked body stop a rifle ball.

The workingmen of Lyons, France, have a representative in the Chamber of Deputies, M. Brialou, who has gone to the bottom of the protective tariff, and we commend his discovery to the committee of the iron and steel manufacturers and iron ore producers who sent their remonstrance against the Morrison bill to the Committee of Ways and Means on Saturday. The reason why French labor is depressed, says M. Brialou, is because foreign labor is employed so extensively in France. Italians and Germans crowd the manufactories and besiege the doors of public works departments, offering to work for less wages than the French operative requires to maintain himself and his family in the scale of comfort and decency to which he is accustomed. The foreigners are taking the bread out of his mouth. M. Brialou is not an extremist. He does not ask that immigration be prohibited, but he thinks it is perfectly fair to demand that a law be passed prohibiting the employment of more than 10 per cent. of foreigners in the public works prosecuted by the state, or the departments or municipal corporations. As regards the manufactures carried on by the state, he would have foreigners excluded altogether. As regards private manufactures, he merely points out that foreigners are not only taking work out of French hands, but sending the money they get out of the coun-

try. Arguments very like these were heard in California in support of the Anti-Chinese Bill. Why they are not equally applicable to the Atlantic seaboard, we fail to perceive.

The German Liberals of every shade of opinion seem to be indignant over the action of Prince Bismarck in the Lasker matter, and the Executive Committee of the Liberal Union have signed an address of thanks to the House of Representatives in Washington for the passage of the resolution. Unfortunately, however, Bismarck is to remain in power, no matter what the Liberals think about him, and it is with him that our diplomatic intercourse has to be carried on. This raises the question of the expediency of keeping Mr. Sargent at his post in Berlin. No one here questions the fidelity and efficiency with which he has discharged his duties, but ever since the State Department committed the very great indiscretion of publishing his despatch about the motives of the German hostility to American pork, he has been an object of dislike on the part of the ruling and official class in Berlin. This would not be of any consequence, or in fact would tell in his favor, if ambassadors were intended to be messengers of defiance, or semi-military vassalies. They are, however, meant to be messengers of peace and goodwill, who represent their country in its friendly and conciliatory attitude. When a minister's presence ceases for any cause, reasonable or unreasonable, to be grateful to the Government to which he is accredited, his usefulness is at an end, and he ought to be recalled. This is really the predicament in which Mr. Sargent stands. His presence is apparently an irritant to Bismarck and his set. This is very unfortunate, but there is no help for it, and there is only one remedy.

European Governments, which make diplomacy a regular branch of the public service, in which places are permanent, get over such difficulties very easily. When a Minister for any reason becomes obnoxious to the Government to which he is accredited, they transfer him to another post, and, if his conduct has met with their approval, to a better one than that which he leaves. They thus both vindicate and reward him, while putting an end to the difficulty which compelled his withdrawal. We are unfortunately unable to settle such cases in this way. When an American Minister gets into trouble, and has to be removed, no matter how blameless or praiseworthy his conduct may have been, he really has to be dismissed from the service. In other words, we have to inflict on him, if a poor man, a very heavy penalty. This naturally leads Ministers to whom the salary is of importance often to hold on to their places after their usefulness has ceased, and makes the State Department very slow to recall them, even "under fire." We say even under fire, because whatever might have been said for the old "fire" rule, under which so many unworthy persons were kept in office in President Grant's day in the home service of the Government, it is absolutely inapplicable to the diplomatic service, for the reasons we have already given.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 27, to TUESDAY, March 4, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President sent to Congress on Friday the first report of the Civil Service Commissioners, accompanied by a message in which he said: "Upon the good results which that law has already accomplished, I congratulate Congress and the people, and I avow my conviction that it will henceforth prove to be of still more signal benefit to the public service. I heartily commend the zeal and fidelity of the Commissioners and their suggestions for further legislation, and I advise the making of such an appropriation as shall be adequate for their needs." The report, after reviewing the work of the Commission, concludes: "We cannot doubt that the most difficult stage is passed. But it will require some years of careful study and prudent adjustment to carry into full effect the practical methods authorized by the Civil-Service Act. The clerical force of the Commission, however, is inadequate. It has been worked beyond the customary hours of the departments. At least one additional clerk seems indispensable. In submitting this report it is proper for the Commission to declare that in every stage of its work it has had the constant and unwavering support of the President."

The President on Saturday transmitted to the House of Representatives the report of the commission appointed to examine into the condition of the swine product of this country. The Secretary of State, in a communication on the subject says, the report shows conclusively that hog cholera is not present in meat packed for human food, and in no event is the disease communicable to human beings. As to trichinosis the report is less conclusive, because less is certainly known of the manner in which the living trichine or their germs are transmitted. He advises further investigation on this point.

The House bill repealing the test oath was passed by the Senate on Wednesday, after being amended so that no person who held a commission in the United States army before the war and was afterward engaged in the military, naval, or civil service of the so-called Confederate States, shall be appointed to any position in the army or navy of the United States.

The Senate on Friday passed a bill to increase the navy, by a vote of 38 yeas to 13 nays. It authorizes the President to direct the construction of seven steel vessels, consisting of one cruiser of 4,500 tons displacement, one cruiser of 3,000 tons, one despatch vessel of 1,500 tons, two heavily-armed gun-boats of 1,500 tons each, one light gunboat of 750 tons, and one gunboat not to exceed 900 tons; also, of one steel ram, one cruising torpedo-boat, and two harbor torpedo-boats.

The Senate on Monday passed bills appropriating more than \$3,000,000 for public buildings in various cities.

The Senate Committee on Public Lands on Monday decided in favor of the forfeiture of the Texas-Pacific territorial land grant assigned to the Southern Pacific Railroad Company.

The House Committee on Public Lands on Wednesday voted to declare a forfeiture of all lands granted to the Northern Pacific Railroad, except as to that part of the road which was completed before July 4, 1879, and except all lands that have been patented to the road, and also lands which may have been occupied and improved by actual settlers.

At a meeting of the eight Democratic members of the Ways and Means Committee of the House on Thursday, it was unanimously agreed to report a substitute for the Morrison Tariff Bill. The substitute is identical with that bill, except that the free list is confined to salt, coal, and lumber.

The House Committee on Commerce, on Friday, agreed to an Inter-State Commerce

bill, the basis of which is the bill of Mr. Stewart, of Vermont. The chief changes are that the provisions of the Reagan bill which absolutely prohibit pooling and rebates are adopted.

Mr. Morrison, from the Ways and Means Committee, presented an important privileged resolution to the House on Wednesday. It called upon the Secretary of the Treasury to inform the House how much money there is in the Treasury; under what provisions of law it is retained, and how much, in view of existing liabilities, can be applied at this time to the payment of the public debt without embarrassment to the department. The resolution was adopted. It is undoubtedly intended to be used in connection with the tariff and refunding bills.

The Postal Appropriation Bill, as reported to the House by Mr. Randall's committee, appropriates only \$45,261,000 of the \$50,000,000 asked for by the Postmaster-General. It cuts down the estimate for letter-carriers and the free-delivery system by \$200,000. The Postmaster-General asked for \$12,750,000 for inland transportation. Mr. Randall's committee cuts it down to \$11,700,000. This endangers the fast mail service in all parts of the country.

The German-American Congressmen presented the resolutions on the Lasker incident from the Liberal members of the German Parliament in the House on Wednesday, and, after a brief debate, which was more temperate than had been expected, the resolutions were referred unanimously to the Foreign Affairs Committee. The bill to prevent the spread of pleuro-pneumonia in cattle was passed by the House by a vote of 155 to 137.

The Hewitt-West incident has been passed over by the House without notice. The Foreign Affairs Committee reported on Wednesday that they had been unable to obtain any information upon the subject, and asked to be excused from a further investigation.

The Shipping Committee of the House, on Monday, by a vote of 7 to 3, authorized ex-Governor Dingley to report favorably the Pilotage Bill, which authorizes the master and mates of any American sailing vessel to be examined and licensed by the United States inspectors to pilot their own vessels.

By a vote of 227 to 46 the House decided on Monday that every person who served sixty days in the Mexican war should receive a pension of eight dollars a month.

A decision was rendered by the Supreme Court of the United States on Monday in the long pending legal-tender case of *Juilliard vs. Greenman*. The Court holds that the Legal-Tender Act of March 31, 1878, is valid and Constitutional, and that Treasury notes reissued under it are a good and legal tender in payment of all debts. Justice Gray gave the opinion.

The decrease of the public debt during February was \$2,582,587.

Mr. W. H. Hunt, United States Minister to Russia, died in St. Petersburg on Wednesday. He was a native of South Carolina, but spent most of his life in Louisiana, where he rose to eminence as a lawyer. President Hayes appointed him one of the Judges of the Court of Claims, a position which he held when called to President Garfield's Cabinet as Secretary of the Navy. When President Arthur reorganized his Cabinet, Mr. Hunt was sent to Russia as Minister to succeed Mr. Foster. Public funeral services were held in St. Petersburg on Tuesday. The body will eventually be brought to this country.

The New York Republican State Committee met in this city on Tuesday, and decided that the State Convention should be called to meet at Utica on April 23. A resolution was passed recommending that the district delegates to the next Republican National Convention be elected by conventions in the respective Congressional districts.

Governor Cleveland on Monday morning signed the Comstock bill prohibiting the making of further contracts for the labor of convicts in the State's prisons and penitentiaries of this State. He returned to the Assembly that evening the bill extending the time of the Howe Prison Commission, with a message giving reasons why the bill did not receive his signature.

The Finance Committee of the State Senate on Wednesday recommended an appropriation of \$1,000,000 for work on the State Capitol at Albany for the ensuing year.

In the Assembly the bill making it mandatory upon local authorities to carry out the provisions of the State Civil-Service law was reported favorably from the Cities Committee. It was made a special order for Tuesday. The bill making a reduction of twenty-five per cent. on the present pilotage fees was passed—ayes, 82; noes, 21.

The proposed amendment to the Constitution of the State, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of spirituous and intoxicating liquors, was rejected by the Assembly on Thursday by a vote of 61 to 63. Eight Democrats voted with the Republicans in the affirmative, and seventeen Republicans with the Democrats in the negative.

The Roosevelt bill, taking the confirming power from the Aldermen of this city, was favorably reported by the Senate Committee on Thursday by a vote of 6 to 1.

In the Assembly on Tuesday Mr. Roosevelt unexpectedly received a two thirds vote in favor of making the High-License Bill a special order for one week from next Thursday. The prospect for the passage of the bill is, however, not promising.

The time for holding the New Jersey Republican State Convention at Trenton has been changed to April 17.

The New Jersey Assembly destroyed on Wednesday the efficacy of the Civil Rights Bill passed by the Senate several weeks ago, by striking out the specifications of hotels, restaurants, and theatres as places in which colored persons should enjoy the same privileges as white persons, and by reducing the penalties for violation of the law to such small sums that a colored person would hardly take the trouble to bring suit for them.

The Faculty at Amherst College have voted not to endorse the resolutions on inter-collegiate athletics.

John Guy Vassar has given \$10,000 for the benefit of the cabinets of physical and chemical apparatus in the Vassar Brothers' laboratory at Vassar College.

Mrs. Mary Brown, widow of John Brown, the abolitionist, died on Friday in San Francisco. She was married to him in 1833, when in her eighteenth year.

Governor Richard D. Hubbard, of Connecticut, died in Hartford on Thursday morning. He was born in 1818 and was graduated from Yale College in 1839. Adopting the profession of law, he gained distinction in it, and for twenty years was State Attorney for Hartford County. He was elected to Congress in 1867, and was made Governor of Connecticut by the Democrats in 1876. During the war he was a staunch Unionist, and his views on civil-service reform and other public questions of the present day have been such as to command the respect of both political parties.

The chemical works of Powers & Weightman, in Philadelphia, the largest in the country, were burned early on Friday morning. The loss was more than \$1,000,000, on which there was an insurance of about \$500,000. The firm were manufacturers of large quantities of quinine, the wholesale price of which was affected by the fire.

A fire in Utica, on Sunday, destroyed property valued at about \$1,000,000. The Utica City

National Bank and the *Observer* office were among the buildings destroyed.

FOREIGN.

The advance of the English troops on Teb began on Wednesday. Two hundred and fifty men were left to garrison Trinkitat, and a force of about 3,900 men advanced to the attack. On Thursday night the expedition encamped near Fort Baker. On Friday morning the troops advanced to battle. The forces were formed in an oblong square. The Gordon Highlanders in line formed the advance, with two Gatling guns and one Gardiner in the right corner, and two Gardiners and one Gatling in the left corner. The Eighty-ninth Regiment in line formed the right-hand side of the square, the Black Watch Regiment the rear. The length of the front was 350 yards. The rebels in swarms occupied the high ground in front and on the flanks of the British army. They retired slowly, as the English advanced, keeping within about 1,200 yards of the main body of the English forces. After an advance of three miles had been made the earthworks of the rebels came in sight, and the British troops advanced to within 800 yards of the position. The rebels opened the battle with a shell from a Krupp gun and followed it up with a fusilade from small arms. Baker Pasha was wounded in the face by a piece of shell and twenty British were hit. They kept on their advance, and at noon opened fire with guns and rifles. The rebel fire slackened, and the British advanced upon the works. The defenders held their position desperately, and charged upon the British with their spears, but fell in great numbers, and the line sullenly retired. Having cleared the ground in front, the British attacked Fort Burnaby, and carried it after a desperate fight, the Arabs contesting every inch. The British then stormed a brick building, and at 1 o'clock the rebels bolted, the Gatling guns and Martini rifles creating great havoc among them. The English forces advanced to the fresh-water well at Teb, where the rebels made their last stand. After four hours of arduous fighting the British gained possession of the rebels' camp. The cavalry charged the slowly retreating rebels. General Graham decided to pass the night at the Teb Wells. The losses were: about 2,000 rebels killed, 24 British killed, and 142 wounded.

The British troops entered Tokar at noon on Saturday. A few shots were exchanged with the enemy, when the 4,000 rebels holding the town fled. The garrison numbered seventy men who were half starved. The remainder had joined the rebels. Osman Digma is encamped near Suakim. A battle with him is expected when the British troops return to Suakim from Tokar. General Graham will have the troops embark at Trinkitat and return to Suakim, as the latter place is the best base for operations against Osman Digma. General Graham, leaving a battalion to garrison Fort Baker, will order the troops to embark on Thursday. The operations against Osman Digma will not extend beyond Tamanieb.

The London *Times* on Monday asserted that General Graham had been ordered to retreat immediately from Tokar, and to arrange for the return of the British troops to England and Egypt. Eul Graville, Foreign Secretary, positively denied the rumor in the House of Lords. His statement was received with loud cheers.

A lively scene occurred in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon. Questions were put to the Government regarding the condition of affairs in Egypt which the Government refused to answer, whereupon great excitement arose. Sir Wilfrid Lawson, Radical, moved that the House adjourn in order to discuss the Sudan problem. He made a violent attack upon the Government, charging it with cowardice, blood-guiltiness, butchery, and

Jingoism. The motion was rejected by a vote of 103 to 105.

The Egyptian Government, feeling convinced that General Gordon's mission would fail, offered on Sunday to Abd-el-Kader Pasha, Minister of War, under the sanction of Sir Evelyn Baring, the British Minister, the Governorship of Khartum. Abd-el-Kader Pasha refused to accept the office, however, unless General Gordon should assent.

General Gordon's latest proclamation to the inhabitants of the Sudan asserts that, as he has done everything possible to insure quietness and stop bloodshed, and his advice has not been followed, he has been compelled to summon British troops who will punish them. The proclamation caused a sensation at Cairo on Friday when it was made public. No demand for British troops had reached there. Later advices indicated that El Mahdi had received with delight Gordon's offers, and had ordered a cessation of fighting.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night Mr. Gladstone introduced a bill for the extension of the franchise. Important additions result from making the £10 occupancy of dwelling houses include land and gardens at that rental, without any buildings, and without actual residence there. It enfranchises residents who neither own property nor pay rent, but who work on the land, such as laborers, gardeners, game keepers, watchmen, etc., residing in cottages on the employer's property. It abolishes the old £50 county occupancy franchise, and reduces the rating franchise from £12, where it was left by the Disraeli reform bill, to £10. It also extends the lodger franchise from boroughs to counties. It does not deal with the redistribution of Parliamentary seats.

Mr. Gladstone, in his speech on the bill, said, to introduce separate franchise bills for England, Ireland, and Scotland, with a prospect of carrying the English and Scotch bills and leaving the Irish bill to take its chances, would be altogether impracticable. The arguments in favor of a uniform bill were unanswerable. Nothing could induce him to abandon such a bill. Redistribution of the Parliamentary constituencies must follow the reform of the franchise. But if the two questions were embodied in the same bill, it would prove fatal to both. The measure would increase the voting power of the United Kingdom by about 2,000,000. Of this number England would furnish 300,000, Ireland 400,000, and Scotland 200,000. After some remarks in opposition the debate was adjourned. The Parnellites and the Scotch members appear generally well pleased with the bill. The English Liberals are disposed to object to extension of franchise unless coupled with redistribution, on the ground that it will strengthen Ireland and Scotland at the expense of England.

Mr. Gladstone has agreed to the creation of a new Minister with a seat in the Cabinet, to be called the Secretary for Scotland.

An infernal machine, containing twenty pounds of dynamite and a clock-work attachment for firing it, was found at Charing Cross Railway Station, England, on Thursday. The machine had failed to explode at the time for which it was set. The clock-works were of American make. Another infernal machine of American manufacture was found at Paddington Railway Station on the same day. The discoveries created great excitement in England, and extra police precautions were immediately taken. Parnellites in the House of Commons, on Thursday, denounced the dynamite campaign as no part of their programme. On Saturday a black bag made of American cloth was found in the cloakroom of the Ludgate Hill Station, containing about forty packages of dynamite and a portion of an American alarm clock. Four men who arrived in England from America on Feb. 20 are believed to be the guilty conspirators.

The London *Times* appeared with a leader on Friday in which it said: "It is intolerable that England should be exposed to this succession of plots from a nation which professes to be friendly with us and with which we have only a desire to live in peace and amity. We know that the Americans are aware of the identity of the plotters of these outrages. It would be no hard task for the American Government to end the whole thing. We shall do our utmost to guard ourselves. It remains for America to aid us, as she alone can nip the mischief, but our demand is one which a civilized nation is bound not to disregard." Later in the day it was announced that the English Government had decided to send a courteous despatch to America relative to the action of Americans in countenancing and assisting dynamiters.

The London newspapers on Wednesday referred indignantly to the explosion at the Victoria Railway Station as a further evidence of Fenian cowardice. The *Times* said: "The leaders of the Land League will do well to exert their influence with the dynamiters to repress outrages, since the British, however long-suffering, will not indefinitely permit the murder of innocent persons."

The Paris police are convinced that the advanced Irish party have made Paris their headquarters in Europe for the preparation of their dynamite schemes. The Nationalist colony includes representatives of the three centres of the Irish Republican Brotherhood. The first section comprises former Fenians, James Stephens, John O'Leary, and General MacAdaras. The police have traced the arrival of five men belonging to the third or active section—the dynamiters—who have been told off for the next attempts. They came from Buffalo, Paterson, Brooklyn, and two from Texas. They are believed to be pupils of McDevitt.

The French Government has decided to expel from France all suspected dynamiters.

Henry Irving denies that he will be a candidate for Parliament.

Prof. Goldwin Smith denies the report that he has been offered the Professorship of History at Oxford by Mr. Gladstone.

Salvini made his reappearance at Covent Garden, London, on Thursday night, in the character of *Othello*. He showed undiminished powers, and met with a warm reception.

Isaac Todhunter, the well known English mathematician, is dead. He was senior wrangler at Cambridge in 1848, and in time became professor at that University. He was the author of many works on the higher mathematics.

The bust of Longfellow was unveiled in Westminster Abbey on Saturday. The Sub-Dean of Westminster performed the ceremony. Earl Granville and Minister Lowell made speeches.

Miss Nevada, the American prima donna who has made such a success in Paris, has become a convert to the Roman Catholic faith. She will soon receive the rite of baptism at the English Passionist Church in Paris. M. Gounod, the composer, will be one of the sponsors.

The Emperor William of Germany gave a state banquet on Wednesday night in Berlin in honor of the Special Russian Embassy and the Grand Duke Michael. He made a very friendly response to the toast in honor of the Czar.

Christian August Selmer, Minister of State for Norway, was on Wednesday found guilty under articles of impeachment, and sentenced to forfeit his official positions and pay a fine of about \$5,000.

General Iglesias took the oath of office as Provisional President of Peru in the Assembly at Lima on Saturday. The Cabinet have resigned.

DYNAMITE PROPOSALS.

THE English press continues to discuss actively the nature of the dynamite grievance, but the discussion does not make the matter much clearer. The nearest approach to a practical suggestion is that Congress might pass a law making conspiracies to injure life and property in foreign cities a highly penal offence. Assuming that Congress has the power to pass such a law, the difficulties in the way of its enforcement would be so great that the law would be, after its passage, so much waste paper. A conspiracy is a matter proverbially difficult to prove in a court of justice, and, of course, the passage of such a law would render evidence far harder to get than it now appears; for the dynamiters like Rossa, who now go about breathing forth fire and slaughter, would keep very quiet, while the work would still go on; so England would really, in the enforcement of her own laws, be cut off from a good deal of American evidence now contributed gratis to her police and prosecuting officers through the dynamite press here.

The English press obviously forgets that the spectacle of the extreme difficulty their own government finds in preventing Irish agrarian and political crime, is not such as to encourage ours to think that we can, at a distance of three thousand miles, do much to help them. They have had to change their whole system of trying crimes of this sort, to authorize the arrest and imprisonment of persons on mere suspicion, to take away the most cherished and ancient legal rights, merely to secure life and property within the jurisdiction of their own courts. To expect a foreign Government, however friendly, to do anything of this kind is ridiculous. But the task which the English press would like to impose upon us is far harder than that of the English Government. It involves, first, legislation, and then the enforcement of legislation against crimes hatched here to be committed abroad. We might have to work for several years before we could get a single conviction; and indeed the lesson taught us by England is that we could not probably accomplish anything at all without suspending the habeas corpus, and taking away the prisoner's right to trial by jury. This is what the English demand for legislation comes to if it means anything at all.

The suggestion that we might by a vigorous inspection of explosives here prevent the introduction of dynamite into England is also gravely brought forward. Here, again, we are asked to do work which it is the duty of England to do, and which England alone can do. The place to prevent the introduction of dynamite into England is the English custom houses, where any human being who lands can be searched and every box and satchel can be examined. It is no part of our duty to search everybody who leaves the United States to see whether they may not have something in their possession of which they may make an improper use abroad. If it were, we might be just as well asked to prevent "Number Ones" from leaving our ports with knives and pistols as to prevent dynamiters. International law is founded on common sense, and does not require such absurdities.

The Irish-American population are all more or less in the position of refugees, driven out of their own country by bad government at home, and the right of asylum really involves the right to hatch plots and make threats. If the dynamiters were real refugees, every one would see this at once, but we cannot be expected to be more severe with them merely because they are, unfortunately, in many cases, American citizens, as well as a branch of a race governed by England. If it were fair to ask such a thing, even expelling an avowed dynamiter would only leave ten unavowed dynamiters in his place. It is the strong, silent dynamiter who really endangers life and property, not the loud-mouthed ranter who urges him on. But in the last resort, our answer to England must be, How are we to prevent here crimes against life and property which are committed in England, in the face of the enormous difficulties which you find in the task of detecting criminals who actually commit them?

THE MAIN OBSTACLE TO PRISON REFORM.

THE meeting of prison managers and reformers on Wednesday week at the Fifth Avenue Hotel led to a discussion of a great variety of topics connected with prison reform, all of which in themselves are of interest and importance. They were, however, so numerous as to give the report of what took place a bewildering effect. If those who have taken the matter up wish to accomplish anything practical, they evidently need to confine their attention pretty closely to one or two points, and make the public understand what is wanted. The question, for instance, as to the effect of wearing "stripes" on the self-respect of convicts (a disciplinary detail), or that of the "indefinite sentence," which involves a complete change in our whole theory of punishment, are not matters about which the public is asked or expected to do anything just now, nor are they matters about which the reformers are agreed. Even the prison-labor question, important as it is, is not a question of the reform of an admitted prison abuse, pure and simple, but is complicated with political considerations and the demands of the non-convict laborer for protection.

One point was brought up, however, as to which there is little, we think we may say no, difference of opinion among prison reformers. It relates to an abuse which is not local, but extends all over the United States, which has existed for a hundred years, on which prison reform has had thus far no effect worth mentioning, and yet which admits of a simple remedy. This is the connection of the Sheriff with the common jail. The condition of the common jail all over the country is perfectly well known. It is the institution to which offenders, young and old, of both sexes, are sent at the beginning of their criminal career, where they are herded together, given nothing to do, made more callous and vicious and criminal. The city jail, the county jail, the Eastern jail, the Western jail, are all much alike. In this State, for instance, the latest report of the Prison Association gives the following account of the discipline in these in-

stitutions. The jails mentioned are taken at random from the report. In Albany County there is no separation of prisoners of different classes, and as to hard labor the report is "no work." Cayuga County has a "filthy jail;" criminals of all conditions are "mixed together," "without restraint or watch." Chenango County—"Sanitary condition and ventilation bad." As to prisoners, there are "no particular rules." All these three prisons are reported as being "unsafe" in one way or another; the danger from fire, which is a peculiar feature of all the county jails, being mitigated only by the facilities for escape which the condition of the building offers. In Cattaraugus County the prisoners are not kept separate, nor are they required to work except by the Sheriff "in his garden." The Sheriff suggests that "it would be better if a regular jailor could be employed to watch the prisoners constantly," the deputy placed by him in charge of them "having other business outside." In Chemung County there is no separation, and no work. In Columbia it is "easy to break out," which seems fortunate, as there is "no ventilation whatever." Prisoners are "not asked to work." The Dutchess County Jail has "but little ventilation," "no distinction" between different classes of prisoners, and "no labor whatever." In the Kings County Jail, which we believe is frequently presented by the Grand Jury, there is, or was recently, a little collection of instruments of torture—a "yoke," four "raw-hides" well worn, and two "paddles." None of these, it is unnecessary to say, are recognized by the Revised Statutes as legitimate instruments of discipline. And so on from one end of the State to the other.

This picture of the New York jail, it appears from the discussion last week, is a fair representation of the jail everywhere. No such state of affairs exists in the State prisons of this or other States. In them, though they may be capable of much improvement, the convicts are kept hard at work, are classified and separated, and are not allowed to associate with each other in such a way as to make it probable that the effect of their imprisonment will be to make them worse instead of better when they return to society.

The explanation of the difference between the jail and the State-prison system lies on the surface. A hundred years ago all prisons were in the condition that our jails are now. They were sinks of filth and iniquity and cruelty, and schools of crime. They were reformed by the Legislature's adopting the system of prison discipline shown by the example of early prison reformers to be the true one, and making it uniform throughout the State. So far has this been carried in this State that we have put all the prisons under one man, who is solely responsible for them.

Nothing of the sort has ever been done with the jails at all. They have been left in the hands of a petty local politician, chosen at a popular election, and chosen not because he has the slightest interest in the care or reformation of criminals, but because he is a good "worker" for one or the other party. His business is to make a living out of his jail; and, as his prisoners do not vote, and have little to say in the press or at public meetings, he is giv-

en no trouble by anybody. The first step in prison reform is, as has been urged repeatedly by prison reformers, to take the jails out of the hands of the Sheriff and put them into those of the State. This is a single point which can readily be made plain to the comprehension of the public; and if the prison reformers will make it so they may do a great deal of good. The Sheriffs, it is needless to say, are totally opposed to any change.

LIQUOR GOVERNMENT.

THERE IS ONE consideration, not directly connected with the Roosevelt Aldermanic Bill, now before the State Senate, but having an important bearing on it, which may be seriously commended to the attention of a good many people who care but little about the difficulties of municipal government. That consideration is the rapid growth, not in this country only, but all over the world, of the opinion that the next great step in amelioration of the condition of the race must be the destruction or great diminution of the manufacture and sale of spirituous liquors. We are not now talking of the state of mind of fanatical temperance advocates or prohibitionists. We mean that the increased attention which is being given to the problems of crime and poverty, and which finds expression in attempts to improve the dwellings of the poor, to make their lives less dreary and the future of their children more hopeful, to protect women and children from brutality and fraud, to make prison discipline more wholesome and reformatory, brings the most conscientious and influential members of every community face to face with the fact that spirituous liquors—that is, whiskey, brandy, rum, and gin—are by far the greatest cause of preventable human misery. In Switzerland there is a loud call for governmental action, and one which will be promptly answered, if it has not been already answered, to prevent the disorder and misery resulting from the recent rapid increase in the consumption of spirits. In Belgium and Norway the same question is coming up from the same cause. In Great Britain "the enthusiasm of humanity" is very distinctly taking the same direction. In fact, no matter from what point social reformers start, they are all apt to meet round the whiskey or brandy cask, as the true source of most of the woe they are combating.

In this country we are to day met by the grave fact that the quantity of distilled spirits in the United States in October last was 115,949,235 gallons, of which the United States was taking care of 74,582,117 gallons in bond until the owners could find it convenient to pay the tax on it. The amount of human misery, the murders, the fires, the suicides, the defalcations, the loss of property and health, the divorces, the family shame and sorrow, stored up in this amount of liquor is simply incalculable. In fact, it is not too much to say that every whiskey warehouse is like a little volcano, ready at a moment's warning to send little rivulets of flame and desolation over the country. No one needs distilled spirit except in sickness. Nobody in health drinks it with his meals as a cheering or digestive beverage. It is probably

never taken by a healthy man without more or less physical or moral damage. In other words, it is a huge national curse. The number of people who begin to see this is increasing, and they are likely every year to become a greater and greater proportion of the American people. Now, it would be wise for those who are interested in either the manufacture or sale of liquor not to foster the growth of this sentiment by any exhibitions of their strength which are not necessary to the protection of their business. Not only the distillers but the brewers would do well to take note of this. One of these exhibitions which is increasing public hostility is the apparent determination of the liquor interest to take charge of the government of American cities. In all the large cities the liquor-dealers have of late years made strenuous efforts to seize and administer, or take a large share in administering, the revenues. They have long been an almost preponderating influence in the government of this city. There are seven liquor-dealers in the Board of Aldermen in New York, or nearly one-third of the whole number, and, as they act together, they practically control the Board.

Now, the American people will not stand this much longer. The liquor-dealers probably cannot be got out of politics until they are attacked in their saloons, and public sentiment is perhaps not yet ripe for the closing of the saloons. But there is a decided readiness to diminish their number and exercise more stringent supervision over those which are kept open. But no feature of municipal government is likely to be tolerated much longer which is found in practice to result in giving the retailers of whiskey a large share in managing the affairs of civilized communities. The makers and lovers of whiskey, rum, gin, and brandy would do well, therefore, to let the Aldermen go. The less prominent they are, and the less they have to say about government, the better for the liquor interest.

THE MANNERS AND MORALS OF ENGLISH SOCIETY.

LORD EUSTACE G. CECIL has been writing a very dismal article in the last number of the new Tory monthly, the *National Review*, on what he calls "Social Deterioration" in England. His charges are, that manners have sadly fallen off in the House of Commons; that politicians on the stump are disgracefully abusive; that in society "adventurers of every description, male and female, find their way into and are freely encouraged in the best company, because they happen to be predominantly rich, or good-looking, or unscrupulous." The rest of the passage is worth quoting:

"No matter what their previous history may have been, no matter how vicious their conduct or how coarse their manners, if they are wealthy they are courted; if they are clever or pretty they are invited. They even find their way to court balls, and at every great fête of the season they are abundantly represented. Everybody remembers how a famous French actress, still living, was received in town a few years ago. Although her character was notorious in Paris, the honor of receiving her was disputed by those whom the newspapers would call the *élite*

of London society, and she became the rage from Belgrave Square to Pall Mall. American influences are, perhaps, to some extent responsible for the exhibition of such predilections, but there are patent signs elsewhere that bad taste has been imported from other than transatlantic quarters. What the sale of so-called society papers may be, may be known to those who care to inquire; but that it has greatly increased is clear from the number of those papers that have started into existence in the last few years. The scandal mongering traffic is no longer a trade, it is a profession, and evidently a remunerative one. The private lives and secrets of the most distinguished and the most notorious personages are frequently sold by their professed friends for a paltry consideration to newspaper editors, who increase the sale of their wares at the expense of victims, who are unwilling, if not powerless, to retaliate. Scurrilous books and articles have been constantly written since the invention of printing, and occasionally, no doubt, private malice has been satisfied by the publication of some indecent scandal or grosser libel, but it has been left to the nineteenth century to erect the art of slandering into a profession, and, by making the practice remunerative, to do its best to perpetuate the evil. Surely no better evidence could be adduced of the decline of right feeling than the existence of a temper of this kind in the public mind."

In seeking to account for the decline of formality in the intercourse between men, he says:

"For how much of this lack of manners the other sex are responsible it would, perhaps, be ungallant to say. Young ladies are to be found who frequent the smoking-room, do not object to smoke cigarettes, and are not ashamed to adopt the slang they hear there. Indelicate plays are no longer a bar to the presence of unmarried girls, and newspapers containing full details of the Divorce Court are to be seen as well in the boudoir as in the drawing-room. It has been argued that to forbid these things is simply prudery, that to the pure all things are pure, and that the knowledge of good and evil are intended to be as much the curse of the one sex as of the other. But this argument really rests upon the new Democratic gospel, that all men, women, and children are equal, and that the privileges of the one age or sex are the rights of all; a mode of reasoning which leads straight to that anarchy in respect of all creed, opinion, and usage, which is to be the millennium of Advanced Radicalism."

What is most curious in the article is the fact that the writer ascribes everything he deplores to such vague generalities as "American influence" and "Advanced Radicalism," and steadily avoids what everybody who has observed English social phenomena during the past twenty, and particularly the past fifteen years, knows well to be the true proximate cause. In discussing social tendencies, there is not much use in troubling one's self about human depravity in general and man's love of wealth and pleasure. These have existed everywhere and always. The philosophic way of getting at the root of the difficulty is to ask whether any agency capable of producing this demoralization has been at work in England during the past fifteen years, which was not at work during the previous fifteen. The answer must be that there has, and that it consists in a Court largely given up to amusement. Nothing is more familiar to the readers of social history than the influence of such a court on manners. The state of things in England since 1870 is no worse or

more puzzling than the state of things in France between 1853 and 1870. The same causes produced precisely the same effects. When the Empire was overthrown, the pleasure-loving class of all countries transferred themselves to London, simply because the person who had there become the head of society was a pleasure-loving man.

Probably there has in our day been no one equally highly placed who takes life less seriously than the Prince of Wales. This fact is a little disguised by his kindness and good nature, and the assiduity with which he performs those ceremonial duties of inaugurating public works, laying foundation stones, and unveiling statues, in which Englishmen so much delight in seeing royal personages engaged. But it is none the less notorious that he has really set to a wealthy society the fashion of treating amusement as the chief end of man, as something which all who can afford it are entitled to get by any means not involving cruelty or direct dishonesty. We say direct dishonesty, because there is no doubt that a certain section of English society to-day does not scruple to get its pleasure through encouraging dishonesty, or, in other words, by receiving with open arms any well mannered knave or reprobate who is able to make it laugh. There have been, as is well known, many cases of late in which the Prince of Wales's attention has been called to the unfitness of foreigners for some of the social attentions he was bestowing on them, owing to their unfortunate antecedents, but he has refused to treat these antecedents as any disqualification for his company. This is really all there is in Lord Eustace Cecil's mysterious allusions to the "famous French actress" and "American influences." Both French and American adventurers, no matter how low their reputations at home, find in London a ready market for their songs, their good stories, their good card-playing; the Americans, of course, the readier of the two, because they have the language and a new kind of humor. It would be too much to expect society in general to be more particular than its head, or to make wry faces over what he swallows without winking. To ascribe in any degree to "American influences," therefore, English social *défiances*, which good Americans witness with mingled wonder and indignation, is really a little too bad; and to expect the reprobates of American society not to go to the only city in which they find a cordial welcome, is asking too much of these droll and amiable creatures.

What is most needed for English social reformation is a Court which takes life seriously, and does some hard work. As long as the English reverence for royalty exists, the Court must be the most powerful influence on the manners and morals of the wealthy class. That "modern Radicalism" can compete with it sounds very like a joke. There is probably nothing which moulds morals more rapidly than the example of those we admire or envy. The capacity of courtiers for imitation is one of the commonplaces of history, and nearly every man or woman in England in our day, who has over £1,000 a year, is a courtier; and a very large number, when they begin

to feel the rays of Court splendor, rapidly get into the way of thinking that to be "jolly" while you may is the true rule of life, and of feeling deep gratitude to the man or woman who kills time for them pleasantly. They are not responsible for his frauds, or his debts, or her slips and misdeeds, or shabby career, they think; and the songs, and mots, and ways of putting things of both of them are so delightful.

VITROLLES AND THE BOURBON RESTORATION.—II.

PARIS, February 14.

WHILE M. de Vitrolles was making frantic efforts in favor of the Bourbons, among the Kings and Emperors of the Coalition and their ministers, France hardly knew who these Bourbons were or where they were. M. de Vitrolles himself had much to learn on this subject. At Nancy he instructed Monsieur (the Comte d'Artois) concerning the principal political personages of France, and Monsieur instructed him concerning his own family. The King lived quietly at Hartwell, like a landlord; the Queen was dead, and the Countess of Narbonne, who became afterward the Duchess of Narbonne, was the object of the attentions and of the preference of the King. The Duke of Angoulême and Madame lived also at Hartwell. The Comte d'Artois and the Duc de Berry lived in London; the latter had been captivated by an English lady. In his exile, the King had kept up all the appearances of a court: he had two captains of his guard (though he had no guard), the Duc de Gramont and the Duc d'Havré; gentlemen of the chamber, viz.: the Dukes of Fleury, of Aumont, of Duras. Moreover, he had a favorite, the Comte d'Avaray, who had helped him to escape from France at the time of the flight to Varennes. The King had made D'Avaray duke immediately after the death of Louis XVI. D'Avaray became consumptive, and was obliged to go to Italy, where he met M. de Blacas, of an old house of Provence, who was a poor émigré, and whom he took back with him to the little court at Hartwell. After the death of D'Avaray (he died on the island of Madeira), M. de Blacas became the factotum of the King, and a favorite in his turn. The King was very gouty, and could not walk. When M. de Vitrolles heard of this, he was horrified. "What! the King cannot walk? At least he can ride?" "No," said Monsieur. "Good God! what will become of us? Well! we must ride for him." He remembered the words of Burke, speaking of the King: "He must not think of sleeping on velvet cushions. . . . He must go through his provinces—he always on horseback; he must add to the rights of legitimacy all the qualities necessary to an usurper." What were the plans of the King? what was his programme? M. de Vitrolles asked many questions on this subject. Surely, he thought, the King must have meditated on the political situation of France during the tedious days of his long exile; he must have found some way of reconciling old France and new France. The Comte d'Artois could give him but little information; he did not much like the name of "States-General." "Have the States-General not brought us to a subversive National Assembly and to a regicide Convention? The clergy is a highly respectable body, but why should it have a political existence? The parliaments have always been a nuisance and an impediment! The provincial assemblies were an invention of Turgot and Necker." Such were the remarks made to M. de Vitrolles when he offered any suggestion. He soon found that the Princes had no plan, no

programme, no system. They claimed France as a proprietor claims his domain. They meant to be good, to be just, but they knew no more about the art of government than the unfortunate Louis XVI.; at any rate, Monsieur seemed to avoid all general discussions—he cared only for men, and was insatiable of details as to all persons.

A battle had been fought on the 31st of March at Arcis-sur-Aube, and Napoleon, instead of going back to Paris, had attacked the enemy's lines of communication, and thrown himself on Saint-Dizier, in the hope of drawing to himself the garrisons of Lorraine and Alsace. Monsieur was still at Nancy. He gave letters to Vitrolles, accrediting him with the allied sovereigns in the name of the King. He was instructed to negotiate for the recognition of Louis XVIII. and for immediate peace. Monsieur gave him also a copy of the letters-patent which bestowed on himself the title and powers of Lieutenant-General of the kingdom in the absence of the King, a nomination in blank of a Governor of Paris, and several commissions in blank for generals. The intention of Monsieur was to give the governorship of Paris to Talleyrand. With these important documents, M. de Vitrolles started for Paris in a carriage with Baron Weissenburg, an aide-de-camp of Prince Paul of Württemberg, who commanded a division of reserve in the Russian army. They were unknown to each other. They had an escort of Bavarian soldiers. Their carriage was followed by several others, containing officers who were on their way to the headquarters of the allies. The little caravan was arrested in a village by peasants armed with guns and sticks. All the prisoners, with a new escort of Frenchmen, were conducted to Chaumont. M. de Vitrolles, during the journey, had time to destroy all the papers which had been confided to him; if they had been seized by the French officers who cross-examined all the prisoners at Chaumont, he would probably have been shot as a spy. He gave himself out as the servant of Baron Weissenburg, who had shown him much kindness on their dangerous journey, and even helped him to destroy all his papers. It was decided that Weissenburg and all the other officers should be sent to Saint-Dizier, where Napoleon was; as for the servants, they were left behind, and taken from prison to prison. Vitrolles succeeded in making his escape and in going back to Paris. His journey was a true Odyssey, and all his friends thought him lost. Nesselrode said to Dalberg, who inquired for him: "We do not know what has become of him, but we owe it to him that we are here."

Vitrolles had been absent, thrown in the shade, during the preliminaries of the Restoration. He learned on his return that the Duc d'Angoulême had been received at Bordeaux with acclamations; that Paris had not risen at the appeal of the supporters of Napoleon. Talleyrand had not followed the Empress Regentess or the Council of Regency to Blois; he had played a little comedy, and had been arrested at the barrier of Paris by men whom he had himself paid, when he was apparently going to join Marie Louise. Under the presidency of Talleyrand, the Senate had appointed a provisional government. He did not wish to throw himself at the feet of the Bourbons; he wanted to treat with them and to obtain a Constitution. He used all his influence in order to win over to his views the Emperor Alexander, who had arrived in Paris. Alexander was still reticent, and had not yet pronounced the names of the Bourbons. All was still in suspense. Napoleon was at Fontainebleau, collecting the remains of his army, white cockades were showing themselves, but no solution was certain.

Vitrolles had been thus far an instrument of Talleyrand. He went to see him, and was well received, and complimented on his lucky escape from so many dangers. He was taken to the apartments of the Emperor Alexander, who was staying in his hotel in the Rue Saint-Florentin. "Well," said the Emperor, "do you think that our conversation had results enough?" amiably alluding to their first conference. Talleyrand, when he was again alone with Vitrolles, put him many questions as to the Comte d'Artois. They dined with the Emperor. Alexander looked embarrassed. He listened to the eulogy of Monsieur by Vitrolles, but said nothing. He had not made up his mind; he was alone, separated from the Emperor of Austria; he enjoyed the applause of the Parisians; he was popular; he thought himself the king of kings. Vitrolles hoped that the immediate arrival of Monsieur in Paris was a necessity; it would make the balance turn. But in what character would he come—as representative of a King who was not yet recognized? or at the call of the Provisional Government? In what uniform? with what cockade? These questions preoccupied Talleyrand. He was anxious to find a *trait-d'union* between the Senate and the Bourbons, a link between the men of the Revolution and the émigrés. He thought of himself, he thought also of France; he wished to make his weight felt; he wished also to find a new basis for the ancient dynasty. His views were undoubtedly those of a statesman; the views of Vitrolles were those of a partisan. The first was the most intelligent, the second the most loyal. The struggle which began between these two men is the same which has continued since the French Revolution, and which has not ended yet.

The Emperor Alexander was honestly trying to find out the real sentiments of France. He was placed between Talleyrand, who was really in his own person the whole Provisional Government, and the Senate, which was composed of men who thought only of saving their own situation. The marshals abandoned the cause of Napoleon, one by one; all the great bodies of the state asked for the return of the legitimate monarchy. Sieyès, the maker of constitutions; Carnot, the member of the Comité de Salut Public; Barras, Garat, and others, pronounced for a solution which seemed the last resource of France. The return of Monsieur to Paris was decided. Napoleon, feeling himself abandoned, and bearing of the adhesion of Ney, of Macdonald, of Cambacérès, of the Duc de Vicence to the Provisional Government, signed his abdication at Fontainebleau. Vitrolles was sent to Nancy, in order to bring back Monsieur to Paris. His carriage was full of royalist pamphlets, which he scattered on his way. He was the only traveller who had been seen for a long time, and he confesses that the passport given to him by Prince Volkonski, the Chief of Staff of the Allied Armies, was more useful to him than the passport of a Provisional Government which nobody knew. "Is the Emperor dead?" was the universal question. "Does Paris still exist? has it been burned and sacked?" Nobody would believe that all was quiet in Paris. The traces of war were visible everywhere. Vitrolles promised peace to all whom he met—"peace and the Bourbons." "The end which I announced was new, unexpected, and seemed uncertain. Nobody dared to give himself up to his natural impressions; they all feared to be mistaken—deplorable result of the Revolution, which has taught the most open and expansive people to conceal its sentiments and to conform them to the dominant opinion."

Monsieur was not pleased by the news brought by Vitrolles. He was anxious, however, not to act completely at the dictation of the Emperor

Alexander, and he sent for M. de Bombelles, the Minister of Austria, and informed him of the situation. He left the next day for Paris. Vitrolles had brought for him the uniform of the National Guard; the Prince consented to make his entrance into Paris in this popular uniform. Before leaving Nancy, the Comte d'Artois appointed M. de Damas "governor of the province of Lorraine and of the three bishoprics (Toul, Verdun, Metz)"; he did not even know the names of the departments and returned naturally to the old denominations. Meanwhile, the Senate had framed a Constitution, in great haste the Corps Législatif had assented to it, Napoleon had accepted the Island of Elba. The Senators pronounced themselves irremovable, changed themselves into Peers of the Kingdom, and called voluntarily (*librement*) to the throne of France Stanislas Xavier, brother of the last King. Talleyrand had succeeded, and Vitrolles was very indignant. The entrance of Monsieur was a real triumph, but Vitrolles never forgave Talleyrand: he had dreamed of something else than a bargain between his Princes and the Senators of Napoleon. Men, women kissed the knees of Monsieur, kissed his boots, his horse. "What I saw," says he, "happened in the presence of 500,000 witnesses. Many have forgotten it, so much so that they do not believe any more in what they have seen, in what they have felt."

Correspondence.

GENERAL OVERPRODUCTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a communication from "U. H. C." (dated Feb. 9), in regard to the cause of the present depression in business, he discredits the theory of "special overproduction" which has as a remedy the "redistribution of employments," because it involves, seemingly, a condition which is wholly at variance with existing facts. To argue that if, having produced what is not wanted, you subsequently turn around and produce what is wanted, all will go well again, implies, he says, that "certain wants and demands are now unsatisfied and unsupplied, not because of the *lack of means to purchase*, but because of the *scarcity of the thing to be purchased*." On the contrary, either of these facts can be the cause of certain wants and desires remaining unsupplied. If the scarcity of certain things desired does not actually exist, still the lack of means to purchase can exist, and prevents the want from being satisfied. Thus if A produces iron not wanted by B and C, who produce respectively wheat and coal for each other and for A, then it must follow that A's demand for wheat and coal must remain unsupplied if B and C do not want his iron; and for this cause rather than because wheat and coal are scarce. From now on, B and C will only produce enough wheat and coal for themselves alone, unless A can discover something to produce which they desire and cannot now obtain. In the absence of this, A is still in need of wheat and coal, to obtain which he must change his employment, giving up the production of iron and taking up either of the others. In this case A's wants are unsupplied because he lacks the right means of purchase. An exchange cannot be made unless the parties to it desire each the articles possessed by the other.

What is the difficulty in harmonizing these statements with facts? All commodities—iron, cloths, grain, and the like—seem to exist now in abundance, and is not this abundance another name for "general overproduction"? As long as there are men in want of the necessities for

sustaining life, these necessities cannot be said to have been overproduced. The laborers out of employment, the capitalists receiving no return for their investments, have been engaged in producing an amount of certain commodities the ratio of which to the amount of other commodities is too great. We have to-day too many factories, furnaces, and railroads in proportion to the food we produce. The Fall River strikers and the community would both be better off had the strikers been engaged in agriculture for the past year rather than in manufacturing. Corn and wheat are both more nutritious than cotton cloth.

To rectify the present state of affairs will probably take considerable time, as the redistribution of employments and investments is not the work of a day. The change also involves considerable friction.

B. J. S.

CINCINNATI, February 26, 1884.

THE SINS OF THE REVIEWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Might not the critic of the *Saturday Review* who writes so gaily on "Anglo-French and Franco-English," find a most appropriate—nay, a perpetual—text in the French of the *Westminster Review*? If any of your readers care for the most delightful specimens of the "French of Stratford-atte-Bow" sustinized some hundreds of years ago by Chaucer, just turn over the leaves of the October number of this famous review and quote *ad infinitum* for their delectation. Here you will find in the article on Henry Greville's and Lord Ronsd Gower's Reminiscences such "Gallicism" as would disgrace the school exercises of our primary academies: such orthography and grammar as may be found in an unmodernized Montaigne, or in an Englishman's Franc-English diary; such idiom as has never been heard except in the precincts of Westminster.

Is it not a shame that the review of John Stuart Mill and George Eliot should not do better; and is it not worse still that the *Saturday Review* should point its moral and scorn its tale not with the hinge of Paternoster Row, but with the harmless jargon of "a far Western hotel"?

J. A. H.

LEXINGTON, Vt., February 25, 1884.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Edinburgh Review* for October, 1883 (p. 295), in speaking of Sedgwick's attack on the heights back of Fredericksburg in May, 1863, says: "He ascended these blood stained heights, then held by only a couple of slender battalions, numbering 800 men, who were eventually made prisoners, at a cost of 1,000 killed and wounded." This is a grave error. The heights were held by about 8,500 rebels. Early himself, in a communication to the *Richmond Whig*, said he was there with his own division and Barksdale's brigade, and a battery. In all he says he had seven brigades. Doubleday places the number at 9,000. The Committee on the Conduct of the War, after hearing all the testimony, called it 10,000. Barksdale's entire brigade first held the particular part of the heights known as Mary's Hill, and before the attack Early sent Hay's brigade to support him at this point; while the other brigades were close at hand and were attacked at the same time. The 18th and 21st Mississippi regiments were captured almost intact. In all, over 1,000 men were taken, besides the killed and wounded, showing how absurd must be a statement that Sedgwick was confronted by only two battalions of 800 men. In five minutes he lost in killed and wounded nearly 1,000 men, which could not have been the work of 800 men on the other side.

I call attention to this because I have before seen so many underestimates and misstatements about this battle.
W. S. N.
SALEM, February 27, 1884.

THE SITE OF TROY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your review of Dr. Schliemann's new book proves one thing clearly, that any literary criticism of the Doctor's theory and work is necessarily futile. I believe that if, from the literary standpoint, there was any chance to prove or disprove the assumption made in 'Troja' as to the Schliemannian theory of Ilion, your reviewer would have done one or the other. What he does prove is, that no literary criticism can touch the heart of the question. Every argument by which in his view the identity of Ilion with Hissarlik is shown, tells with just the same force in favor of an hypothesis of the identity of the Hissarlik town with that founded by Croesus, which is, according to Strabo, the first historic foundation on the site of the Novum Ilium. Start with the theory that this Lydian city was what Schliemann was looking for, and every argument thus far is as applicable as to Homer's Ilium. I believe that Professor Jebb, in the 'Hellenic Studies' and *Fortnightly*, has done all that can be done from the literary point of view, and that his conclusion that Homer's topography was eclectic is that which is most clearly shown to be the most probable, looking at the matter in the light of all the literary evidence we possess.

What Dr. Schliemann says of "the Lydian city"—"all that I am able to show of this city is its pottery; there is no wall of defence, nor even any house walls, which I could with any probability attribute to it"—shows that that city was not in any probability the Lydian city built by Croesus, which was most unlikely to have been without walls and important buildings. On the contrary, it is more likely to have been so provided than Ilium itself; and what is the most significant item in the evidence—the use of bricks in the walls—is, from the purely archaeological point of view, a proof conclusive, so far as our present knowledge goes, that this city was not Homer's Troy, and was the town of Croesus; for bricks are unknown in the whole series of heroic cities: there is not a single case known of the employment of bricks in the epoch at which Troy must have been built if it be the city of our poetic traditions.

The real demonstration of this question remains purely archaeological, and no authority in archaeology has pronounced in favor of Dr. Schliemann's theories. Dörpfeld and Höfler are not archaeologists, Sayce is an Assyriologist; and all archaeologists at Athens know that Schliemann's education and judgment in archaeological matters are absolutely *nul*. He has not a scientific fibre in his brain, with all his enthusiasm and devotion to antiquity. A great deal has been said about Dr. Schliemann's "intuition," but we need not forget that he proved the first Troy quite as much to his satisfaction as the second; that his "intuition" led him first to excavate on Bunarbashi before Hissarlik, and that years ago he examined Mykenæ carefully and pronounced excavations there futile. He has perpetrated more blunders in purely archaeological matters than are permitted to a tyro, while his knowledge of Greek may be guessed at from his explaining, in the preface of 'Troja,' that a friend had called his attention to the fact that in translating the passage describing the Trojans assaulting the Greek camp, he had made them attacking their own wall instead of that made to defend the camp.

To Dr. Schliemann every fact which goes to confirm his theory is good, every one opposed is of no weight. He sees, and has always seen, what he wants to see. The fact is that he has no conception of the value of a scientific discovery, or conscience in his statement of what he has found; and so he states as fact what is his mere conjecture (*vide* Comparetti's report to the Lincei on an Ithacan inscription transcribed by Schliemann). The battle about Troy will wage many years more unless it is concluded by an archaeological demonstration. Bunarbashi must be as thoroughly excavated as Hissarlik has been. Excavations on the plain are also possibly necessary, and behind the whole controversy lies the possible solution that the Trojan war was a myth.

I have studied the construction of prehistoric and historic walls for twenty years, and may claim a right to pronounce an opinion on such matters; and I do not hesitate in offering one, viz.: that the construction of the wall which Dr. Schliemann describes as that of the Troy of Homer cannot be placed further back than the Lydian dynasty. W. J. STILLMAN.

THE POSTAL NOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If every one should voice his dissatisfaction with the new postal note, it would be speedily discontinued or amended. To contribute my share to that end, allow me to call attention to one disadvantage of the note which I have not seen mentioned. Postmasters frequently make them out on offices that are not money-order offices. I have received three such notes within as many months. There is no remedy but to return the note to the issuing office, or to the sender, which involves a double risk, a long delay and an extra charge.

I believe the country would welcome a limited issue of fractional currency, large enough to facilitate the mailing of small sums, such as are included in the limitations of the postal note. Or else let the notes be made payable at *any* office. Wherever the office is so small as to receive very few orders, the trouble of meeting them would be correspondingly light; and any office that would use many of them is large enough to meet the heavier demand.

H. H. BALLARD.

Notes.

FUNK & WAGNALLS announce as in preparation 'The Fortunes of Rachel,' by the Rev. E. E. Hale, and 'Prince Saron's Wife,' by Julian Hawthorne.

Thomas Whittaker will shortly publish American editions of 'The Authority of Scripture,' by the Rev. R. A. Redford; and of 'Characteristics of Christianity,' by Dr. Stanley Leathes, Prebendary of St. Paul's.

The promised 'Biography of the Hon. Ezra Cornell,' by his eldest son, ex Governor A. B. Cornell, will be issued by A. S. Barnes & Co. on April 1.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready the fourth volume in the series of translations of Topelius's "Surgeon's Stories," namely, 'The Times of Frederick I.'

Chas. Scribner's Sons will begin publishing this month a collection of "Stories by American Authors"—the most noteworthy short stories contributed during the last ten to twenty-five years to our periodicals. The quality of these, we apprehend, will rank very fairly with that of any of their class. A large number have been the productions of women.

The second volume in the new and uniform edition of the works of the late Dean Stanley, now publishing by Charles Scribner's Sons, is his 'Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church' (vol. i.). Besides maps and plans it contains a beautiful steel portrait of the Dean.

A new edition of the 'Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson, Poet Laureate,' has just been issued at a popular price in one volume, 12mo, by Macmillan & Co. It contains a few poems which have been withheld from similar collections for half a century—*i. e.*, since their first printing in 1833. Tennyson has, we are told, corrected the present edition throughout; and having done so much it is a pity he did not affix a date to every piece, if only in the table of contents. This particular service is one which poets ought to feel bound to render posterity, because they can do it most easily. As in the work last mentioned, there is an admirable steel portrait of the author.

The Franklin Square Library, No. 366, is Queen Victoria's 'More Leaves from the Journal of a Life in the Highlands—1862-1882,' a curious psychological study. "A thick, misty, very threatening morning" was Monday, Oct. 9, 1865. "There was no help for it, but it was sadly provoking. It was the same once or twice in former happy days, and my dear Albert always said we could not alter it, but must leave it as it was, and make the best of it." Friday, Sept. 12, 1873, on the contrary, was "a most beautiful bright sunshiny day. . . . At eleven drove to and through Fort William, . . . passing the celebrated Ben Nevis Distillery, which is two miles from here, and . . . by an old, very neglected graveyard, to the right, in which is an obelisk to McLachlan, a poet, and past the Belford Hospital, a neat building, built by a Mr. and Mrs. Belford."

We are glad to receive from the *Forest and Stream Publishing Co.* a second edition of Judge Caton's 'Antelope and Deer of America,' a study in natural history of a kind much too rare not to be welcomed again and again. The work is plentifully illustrated, and is most interesting reading.

A fair book of about three hundred pages, entitled 'The Adventures and Discourses of Captain John Smith,' comes to us from the press of Cassell & Co. It is the story of the founder of Virginia, as gathered from the printed works of that accomplished hero, and "newly ordered" by John Ashton, author of 'Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne,' etc. In this shape the narrative is presented as if related by Captain Smith himself to a group of listening children, and very welcome it will be to English-reading children everywhere, for, as an American biographer has written, "Poetry has imagined nothing more stirring and romantic than his (Smith's) life and adventures, and History upon her ample page has recorded few more honorable and spotless names." The engravings contained in Mr. Ashton's book are barely tolerable facsimiles of those found in Smith's 'True Travels, Adventures, and Observations' (London, 1629) and his 'General History of Virginia, New-England, and the Summer Isles' (London, 1627), and are very much inferior to those in the Richmond edition of these works, printed in 1819 at the expense of John Randolph of Roanoke.

Foris, Howard & Hulbert have made a neat pamphlet of Mr. Beecher's commemorative discourse on the late Wendell Phillips, adding a passable woodcut likeness of the great orator.

Mr. Wm. H. Tillinghast, of the Harvard Library (as we learn from the January *Bulletin*), has undertaken "an index to maps contained in geographical periodicals, collections of voyages, and other extensive works of a geographical nature to be found either in the University

Library or in the larger libraries of Boston." This has already been done for the *Bulletin de la Société de Géographie* of Paris, and begun for the *Annales des Voyages* and the *Nouvelles Annales*.

A paper touching the duel between Burr and Hamilton, and the relations to it of Rufus King, as the friend of the latter, is the most significant contribution to the current *Magazine of American History*. Mr. King's opposition to and dissension from the duel seem established beyond doubt.

In the February *Shakespeariana* Mr. F. G. Fleay adduces evidence of allusions to Shakspere's plays in Marston's, and finds, for example, confirmation of his own conjecture that "Troilus and Cressida" dates back in its earliest form to 1598-99. Mr. J. Parker Norris, continuing his interesting papers on "The Portraits of Shakspere," discusses the famous death-mask, in the authenticity of which he is disposed to believe.

On April 15 J. H. Chambers & Co., St. Louis, will issue the first number of a monthly *American Journal of Ophthalmology*, edited by A. Alt, M.D.

The *Art Amateur* for March comes with a freight of designs of all kinds, e.g., capital process illustrations of the Water Color Exhibition, and a delicate "process" of that most indequate nude statue, Power's "Greek Slave"—a work which has so little of any of the great qualities of sculpture, or of any very remarkable quality except that of utter and conscious nudity, that it is scarcely creditable to the taste of the day that five replicas of it are in existence. Some spicy and relevant editorial comments are made on the Mackay-Meissonier broil—which, by the way, promises to develop into a social feud—and there is a notice of the Brooklyn Loan Exhibition, by Clarence Cook.

De Gubernatis's new *Revue Internationale* (Trübner) has a chapter from a work by Tullio Massarani on Charles Blanc and his work, here entitled "La critique d'art depuis Diderot," and of which the most just and intelligent part is that which is devoted to a really great and learned art critic, Théophile Gautier. As for Charles Blanc, his highest merit is that he knew how to use appreciatingly and edit cleverly the ideas of people who knew art better than he, but not always without gross blunders which showed that he was not *au fond* a true critic. When he ventured alone he fell. There is no vertebral uprightness in his work, no real integrity in his system; he was a master of phrase-mosaic, little else. To write a book on what he wrote is necessarily waste of words, whether it be to praise or blame.

Frederick Keppel & Co. send us the etching by A. J. Martial from the "Cancalaises," by Feyen Perrin—a charming work, to which incidental allusion was made in our review of the Etching Club. The subject is the annual festival of the people of Cancale (where are the great oyster beds of that district on the coast of France) to which on one day in the year all the Cancalaises are allowed access, with the privilege of taking as many oysters as they can carry away. It happens during the autumnal low tides, and as the rise and fall of the tide is very great, an enormous expanse of shallow water lies between the seaward limit of the beds and the shore, through which, coming back from their quest, the multitude of Cancalaises are marching towards the spectator on dry land. The rich ladies of the Cancale sometimes avail themselves of the privilege, and this will serve to explain why in the front of the long line of fisher people walk two who are evidently too delicately bred to be peasants or fishwives, and the refinement of whose faces has been the special study of the

etcher. The etching is, in all the best qualities of the art, the finest large plate which has come under our notice. The exquisite delicacy of the distance of sky; the faintly marked sails of the fishing boats on the open sea; the breadth of the masses; and the extreme tenderness of all the gradations, from the artistically placed black of one of the leading figures out to the far-away stragglers just inside the surf—are the result of a firm and painstaking use of the needle, which our young etchers ought to be glad to see and proud to imitate. The recent death of the etcher makes the examples of his work the more valuable. The study of the three leading figures will teach a beginner in etching more of the art than a year's etching out of his own head.

Mr. James Clephan, of Newcastle-on-Tyne, reprints from the *Archæologia Eliana* a pleasantly discursive paper on "Some Old Forms of Law," in which he passes in review the ancient customs respecting the wager of battle, the *peine forte et dure*, and the repressive laws against the gypsies, taking as his text various incidents in the history of the Palatinate of Durham. Of course, in the compass of twelve pages no exhaustive treatment is possible, but the pamphlet contains several curious anecdotes well worth preservation. The fortitude with which Anthony Arrowsmith in 1597 submitted to the horrors of being pressed to death, in order to avoid the forfeiture of his estate and transmit it to his children, might well serve as the groundwork of an historical novel, if historical novels were not out of fashion; and even the admirers of Mr. Froude might question his admiration for the wholesome rigor of Tudor legislation, when tested by the hanging in 1592 of five "Egyptians," simply for the crime of being gypsies, under statutes which were not repealed until 1783.

There comes to us, from the Chilean Department of Commercial Statistics, a large and handsome volume pertaining to the year 1882, in which a marked gain is exhibited over the transactions of the preceding year. While Valparaiso, as the metropolis, is credited with four-ninths of the foreign commerce, the port of Iquique, one of the four acquired by annexation during the late war, stands for one seventh, and the other three together for about one-sixth. An ironical feature of our American dealing with a nation whose commerce we aim to cripple by our tariff, is the fact that five-sixths of the timber for ship-building in Chili comes from the United States.

The report on the trade between the United States and Mexico, just elicited from the Bureau of Statistics by a resolution of the House of Representatives, is accompanied by a map of Mexico, colored to show the differences of elevation, and indicating also the lines of transportation between the two countries—finished and projected. The appendix is very full of information.

—Mr. Irving's visit furnishes a topic to two magazines this month—the *Atlantic* having an article on him by Mr. Henry A. Clapp, the *Century* another by Mr. J. Ranken Towse. Both critics take fundamentally the same view of Mr. Irving—that he is not an actor of the first rank, and that his intellectual conception of the parts he plays is far better than his actual delineation of them. One difficulty in arriving at a just estimate of Mr. Irving's powers arises, as in the case of most distinguished actors, from a lack of agreement as to the facts on which criticism is based. Mr. Clapp dwells at some length upon the "peculiarities of his delivery," and thus attempts to convey to the reader an idea of what they are:

"His oddities of utterance are no more English than they are Choctaw; sometimes they suggest

Cornwall, sometimes Devonshire, occasionally Northern Vermont. But such hints are given by fits and starts; the dialect is always substantially his own—an Irving patois, developed out of his own throat and brain through the operation of the familiar law of the survival of the unfittest. An alternate swallowing and double-edging of consonants, a constant lapse into an impure, nasal quality, an exclusion of nearly all chest tones, the misdelivery of the vowels by improper prolongation or equally improper abbreviation, an astonishing habit of confounding and confusing different vowel sounds, are the most marked of his disagreeable peculiarities. The great broad vowels are the ones which fare the worst in Mr. Irving's mouth, and the reform of his delivery must therefore be regarded as hopeless: an actor of middle age whose chief pronunciations of 'face' are *fahce* and *fehce*, and of 'no' are *não* and *nawo*, is past praying for in this regard."

Now, we did not ourselves see Mr. Irving in many parts, but his *patois* must necessarily be substantially the same in all, and we heard nothing in it more than may be heard in any cultivated Englishman's speech, colored by a very bad stage rant and drawl, which it appeared to us he had affected for the purpose of artificial invigoration. The result is peculiar, undoubtedly, but not nearly so peculiar as the delicacy of ear which enables Mr. Clapp to detect Choctaw, Cornwall, Devonshire, and even Northern Vermont in his tones. A partisan of Mr. Irving might feel disposed, after reading this article, to raise the not irrelevant question of what Mr. Clapp's own method of speaking English may be. The fact is, that unless we know this, we are not in a position to determine how well the critic can judge of Mr. Irving's departure from recognized standards. It should, at least, be said in Mr. Irving's behalf, that actors' English pronunciation of the present day, at least in this country, is not so good as to make us dread very much the effect of his example: most of them mouth, some rant, almost all betray want of early cultivation. On the other hand, if they all pronounced perfectly well, the effect would be probably very depressing, for the people who come to hear them are by no means parsons in this matter.

—Mr. Towse goes into Irving's principal parts in considerable detail, and his criticism has a great deal of permanent value. A hundred years hence it will enable a theatre-goer, not exactly to compare Irving with the star who may be playing *Matthias* or *Shylock* then, but to get an idea of what our age looked upon with respect and sympathy in the representation of such parts. Mr. Towse directs the attention of his audience to a point continually neglected in modern theatrical criticism, that the main question to be determined is how well the actor delineates human passion—not how he dresses, nor how much the scenery or curtain costs. In all his parts Mr. Irving is tried candidly, and found wanting in the capacity to represent the emotion or passion of the character accurately, or indeed so as to arouse the correlated sympathetic illusion in the audience. He keeps it—or leaves it—cold. In *Matthias* Mr. Towse finds the illusion "never quite complete, and the attention of the spectators is sustained not by engrossing interest in the fate of the mimic personage, but by admiration of the executive skill displayed by the performer." In *Charles I.*, where passion was needed, "there was no ring of honest feeling in his voice; no suggestion of heartfelt impulse in his gesture, which was conventional, stilted, and unimpressive." In *Louis XI.* there is "no manifestation of passion." In *Shylock*, "there was not one single note of true passion, or one touch of genuine pathos, while the lines were often made almost unintelligible by the vilest of elocutionary tricks." Without going any further into detail, this may be said to be a fair sample of Mr. Towse's criti-

cisms on this point, and it will be perceived that they throw a most important light on the question of Mr. Irving's rank as an actor. For those who take the view of the dramatic art on which they are based—and it was until within a generation the only view that any one took—Mr. Irving's great reputation will have to be rested on different grounds from those which support the fame of Garrick, or Edmund Kean, or Mrs. Siddons, or Salvioli. The one essential thing for a great actor he has not. Many things not essential—a keen eye for the picturesque and a great faculty for management—he has; but he is, after all, a labored actor, and the spark of genius has been denied him.

—*Lippincott's* has a good illustrated article on "The Berlin of To-day," by Anna Maynard Butler, which contains a passage of some interest with reference to the education of women:

"In the education of girls, Berlin has always shown deep interest. Perhaps the decided strides onward in this direction taken during the present reign are due to the thorough culture and love of study possessed by the Empress Augusta. Certain it is that several of the best *Schule*, or institutes for girls, have the patronage and untiring interest of the Empress to thank for their prosperity. Far on as American women are supposed to be in matters of study, I venture to say that the German girl is better grounded, better drilled, and far more logically taught than they. She is undoubtedly less able to make use of her knowledge, seldom does make the most of it, and upon her entrance into society is *womanish* rather than *womanly*; nevertheless, the fact remains indisputable that until her seventeenth year her education is based upon a system thorough, progressive, comprehensive, which, if pursued until the age of twenty-one, would make the women of the upper classes of her country the best instructed women of our time."

Any one who has ever seen an American girl subjected to the German process of education must have been surprised to find how much real drilling and discipline a girl will take without injury. The thing in which American girls exceed all others is not knowledge or accuracy, but social readiness and adaptability. This comes, of course, from their early habit of taking care of themselves, and sometimes of their socially helpless parents; and also from their being thrown from their earliest years into the society of the opposite sex in a familiar and pleasant way. They enjoy, if not co-education, at least co-recreation, almost from the beginning of their lives.

—*Harper's* has an illustrated article by Mr. T. W. Higginson on "The Early American Presidents," in which he dwells upon the fact, often noticed by writers who have taken up this period, that French influence had very little effect upon American politics till a good while after the Government was founded. It was in its origin and nature English, and our Frenchmen, though living at the time, did not show their hand till later. But the reason that they did not do so is plain. It was the French who caught the contagion of our example, and went far beyond anything that we dreamed of, and it was not until they had brought a good deal of odium upon liberty, fraternity, and equality, that Jefferson and his followers, demagogues as they were (though, no doubt, as Mr. Higginson says, reformers too), re-echoed their wild talk on this side of the Atlantic. That same Americans should ever have dreaded the establishment of an American aristocracy seems now incredible enough, but they really did. The frontispiece of *Harper's* shows that Mr. Abby is in danger of acquiring some of the English vices of illustration. It resembles the weak and careless work which certain eminent painters are in the habit of sending to English illustrated magazines. His second full-page illustration is scarcely better. The York-

shire coast illustrations are excellent, especially the "Early Morning at Whitby." The portrait of John Adams, cut by Kruell, is an admirable piece of work—one recognizes the textures of Stuart in the engraving. The cuts for "Nature's Serial Story" are in their way delightful both as design and engraving. The article on "Domestic Decoration" is too prescriptive and arbitrary, in its attempt to lay down rules, to be generally very useful. It is absurd, for instance, to say that "the most universally [generally] recognized rule for determining the height of a room is the sum of half the width and the square root of the length"! But the proportions of any room depend on the uses of it and the general disposition of the house and style of architecture. There can be no such rule admitted by an architect of originality. "To make a room appear wider is accomplished to a certain extent by making it appear lower, but when this is undesirable, etc., the effect can be reached by adopting a mural decoration on a graduated scale of form decreasing upward, etc." But this is to effect precisely the contrary: this graduated scale adds to the apparent height of the room, and so, by the author's rule, must diminish the width.

—The second (March) number of the *Foreign Electric*, which, like its predecessor, shows good taste in its selections from French and German periodicals, reprints from *L'Univers Illustré* a fine poem by Paul Déroulède, "Le Clairon," which irresistibly recalls Freiligrath's equally fine "Die Trompete von Gravelotte." The two patriotic effusions challenge comparison by their points of resemblance as well as of contrast, whether accidental or not. Freiligrath's verses, which have found a permanent place in German literature, relate a true and simple episode of the Franco-German war. After a dearly bought victory a trumpeter, ordered to give the signal for rest, finds his trumpet pierced by a ball, and the sound which it gives forth seems like a wail of sorrow over the fallen:

"Nur ein klanglos Wimmern, ein Schrei voll Schmerz
Entquoll dem metallenen Munde;
Eine Kugel hatte durchschert ihr Erz—
Um die Todten klagte die Wunde!"

In Déroulède's poem the trumpeter himself is struck, but with his dying breath he still sounds defiantly the bugle:

"Il est là, couché sur l'herbe,
Désignant, blessé, suprême,
Tout espoir et tout secours;
Et sur sa lèvre sanguinée,
Gardant sa trompette ardente,
Il sonne, il sonne toujours."

It were easy to draw from these two poems a lesson in what is termed the "comparative psychology of nations," did not German sadness in victory and French defiance in defeat, as here interpreted, strike alike a common human chord.

—We congratulate the Bostonian Society on its first publication—"Abel Bowen, Engraver," a sketch by William H. Whitmore. The collector of local guide books prizes few above the second edition of "Bowen's Picture of Boston," published in 1833. This volume, admirable for its contents, was illustrated by a large number of steel plates, mostly containing four views each of the principal buildings of the city. These views are remarkable for their delicacy and fidelity, and are among the most precious and authentic memorials of the edifices delineated. A portion of them, together with several of Bowen's woodcuts, including a portrait of himself, having been acquired for the cabinets of the Bostonian Society, the occasion seemed a proper one for rescuing a highly-deserving name from oblivion. Mr. Whitmore has discharged his task with characteristic accuracy and par-

ticularity, and his little brochure is adorned with impressions from all the cuts and plates referred to. One of the larger woodcuts (that on p. 23), faithfully copied after the English engraver Thompson, was selected by Mr. Linton, in his "History of Wood-Engraving in America," as a sample of Bowen's singular skill in such reproductions. Mr. Whitmore shows that this artist was the real founder of wood-engraving in Boston. In March, 1834, he became one of the incorporators of the Boston Bewick Company, "for the purpose of employing, improving, and extending the art of engraving, polytyping, embossing, and printing." Bowen was also one of the first to experiment with lithography after its introduction. His services in connection with Snow's "History of Boston," and with other works commemorating his adopted city, were worthy of a native. He was in fact born near Greenbush, N. Y. We cannot conceive of anything better calculated to attract support to the Bostonian Society than a series of antiquarian publications like this, of which the get-up is simple and inexpensive.

—Several causes have delayed mention, on our part, of the initial volume of the Archives of Maryland, as undertaken to be published by the Historical Society of that State, by authority of the Legislature and at the public charge. The Society is now the custodian of the recovered archives, for which it has built a fire-proof receptacle; and the invaluable assistance of its librarian, Mr. J. W. M. Lee, has been freely given to the editor, Dr. William Hand Browne, librarian of the Johns Hopkins University, for the making of as creditable a reproduction of colonial records as any State can show. The first volume is a fine quart of nearly 600 pages, and is entirely devoted to the Proceedings and Acts of the General Assembly of Maryland from January, 1637-38, to September, 1664. Such gaps as existed in the archives for this period were happily nearly all made good from duplicate documents found in the London Public Record Office, where, too, much else relating to Maryland was found and copied, and will duly see the light. A calendar of the archives, so far as these are in volumes, is here printed by way of preface. The utmost scrupulousness has been observed in transcribing literally, with the single exception that the abbreviation for *the* has been disregarded. There are four indexes—of bills read, and passed; of persons and places; of miscellaneous business—the last not sufficiently analytical, surely, and not to be compared with the topical indexes, say, of the Boston Record Commissioners. In all other respects, the execution of this task merits unqualified praise.

—What strikes one, in running through this body of early legislation, is the temporary character of it—a large part being enacted only until the next Assembly should meet, and having to be renewed from time to time. In extreme cases, as in the punishment of swearing, a term of three years seemed allowable. One advantage of this renewal of old statutes was the opportunity of improving them under better enlightenment. Thus, nothing gave more trouble during the period under consideration than the condition of white servants or apprentices, especially their bad habit of running away. The first "act against fugitives," passed in August, 1641, denounced their action as felony, punishable with death or servitude. After one or more renewals, in April, 1649, nothing but fine and doubling of time of service was exacted. Punishments were not peculiarly barbarous. The first case of flight and theft by a servant dealt with by the Assembly showed a majority favorable to John Richardson's being

whipped three several times, but "Mr. Greene to be hanged; Mr. Giles Brent to be whipped very severely; Mr. Fulk Siliter [similiter]: The Captain: to be whipped provided that he be sorrowful for his fault; The President: to be laid in irons and whipped three several times very severely." For treason, it was proposed that a man should be hung and quartered, a woman drawn and burnt. Acts of September-October, 1663, provide for erecting a pillory, stocks, and ducking stool in every county of the province, and furnishing irons for burning malefactors. An act read but not passed at the session of February-March, 1638-9, "for allowing booke to certain felonies" (including runaways), adjudged "death by hanging except the offender can read Clerk like in the judgment of the court." The first "act concerning negroes and other slaves" was passed in September, 1664, and was an effort to put a stop to amalgamation: free women who consented to bear children to slave fathers being made slaves during their husbands' lives, and the offspring following the father's condition. "An act for the liberties of the people," not passed (February-March, 1638-39), was on behalf of "all the inhabitants of this province being Christians (slaves excepted)." Indians are more often referred to than negroes, as in "an act touching pagans." The morals of the "servants" are reflected in acts against bastardy, and in the curious case of defamation, reported at length, of Spike vs Barber; the Assembly, on a technicality, reversing the decision obtained by the "light carryaged" Mrs Spike against her former master. Engrossing and forestalling, and "lawfull tender," were still other subjects of legislation. In measures, the "Winchester Bushell" was adopted in 1641. And in 1638-39 it was enacted that "all contracts made for paymt. in Corne shall be understood of Corne shiled, & a barrell of new Corne tendred in payment at or afore the fifteenth day of October in any Year shall be twice shaked as the barrel and afterward heaped as long as it will lyie on; and at or before the feast of the nativity shall be twice shaked and filled to the edge of the barrell or else not shaked and heaped as before. And after the said feast it shall not be Shaken at all but delivered by Strike."

—Few numbers of *Le Livre* have been of better quality than that for February, the fiftieth. It opens with an article by M. R. Chantelauze, on "The Last Love of J. J. Rousseau," which introduces us to a professed copy of a hitherto unpublished letter addressed by the philosopher on March 28, 1770, from Monquin, to Lady Cecilia Hobart, an English flame. This epistle, carefully written in a hand assigned to the close of the last or the beginning of the present century, is mainly a justification of suicide, conformably to the mood of his correspondent and her English lover (not Platonic), but indulges in rhapsodies about love in general and the writer's for her in particular, in a manner of which Rousseau was certainly capable, and in a style which is not obviously not that of the author of the *'Nouvelle Héloïse'*. Lady Hobart has not been notorious among Rousseau's acquaintances, though she must have been a tremendously bright spot in his dismal English experience, nor have M. Chantelauze's researches put her existence and identity past dispute. He relies, therefore, chiefly upon the internal evidence, and offers some interesting comparisons from the *'Confessions'*, etc. We will mention a possible confirmation which he has overlooked. The letter to Lady Hobart is very long, and even so is fragmentary, lacking the conclusion. In the known correspondence of the period it can only be compared for length with the letter of Feb. 26, 1770, to M. de Saint-Ger-

main, which has very properly been styled the complement of the *'Confessions'*. Now, on the same day that he was writing to Lady Hobart, he wrote to M. Moulton a much briefer note, cutting it short with the excuse, "Le papier me manque"; and it is small wonder if his stock of paper gave out after so prolonged a drain upon it as the Hobart letter called for.

—The second article, by M. de Saint-Heraye, describes the late Henri Martin's curious entrance into literature as novelist, poet, and journalist. This is accompanied by a striking pencil-sketch of the historian, made about 1860. The third article, by Adolphe Racot, is an entertaining review of the origin and development of the *Révue des Deux Mondes*, apropos of its recent removal to new offices at No. 15 rue de l'Université, in the venerable hôtel once occupied by Joseph de Beauharnais. No one can read this narrative without a feeling of admiration for that *paysan du Danube*, François Buloz, and his able lieutenants, the grim Gerdès and the diplomatic Bonnaire. We pass over the "Recent Studies on Jacques Casanova," of whom a newly discovered bust is engraved expressly for this number. The editor, M. Octave Uzanne, takes the floor in a chat about men and things which promises to be a useful innovation in the scheme of *Le Livre*. He falls foul of the much lauded Lami Lalauze designs for Musset, which he declares destitute of originality or fitness, and much inferior to Bia's. To accompany them, however, the publisher, Lemerre, contemplates a quarto *édition de luxe* of Musset's works, and M. Uzanne improves the opportunity to show how ill edited this author has been. In its amiable attention to American affairs, *Le Livre* makes this month the pardonable error of transplanting "le célèbre historien G. Bancroft" to Mexico, where he is said to be gathering observations for his great work on the aboriginal populations of America; Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft being certainly intended.

—Cowen, Moszkowski, Brahms, and Liszt were the very modern names on the programme of Saturday's Philharmonic concert in Brooklyn. Cowen was represented by his "Scandinavian" Symphony, and Brahms by his Variations on Haydn's Chorale St. Anthony, both of which compositions were heard at the last Philharmonic concert in this city. Of Liszt, the familiar symphonic poem, "Tasso," was given — one of the most original and most superb of modern compositions, sorrowful and weird in the "lamento" part, while the "trionfo" is an outburst of exuberant feeling that places it on a par with the most inspired national hymns. The novelty of the concert was Moszkowski's violin Concerto opus 30. In listening to this work it is difficult to realize the fact that the author has not yet reached his thirtieth year. It is easy to predict that his name will be very prominent on the concert programmes of the next twenty years and thereafter, if he fulfills the expectations raised by his compositions that have so far appeared. Some of his piano-forte pieces already enjoy a deserved popularity. They reveal the influence of the three most potent factors in modern musical life—Chopin, Schumann, and Wagner, coupled with a distinct reminiscence of Bach. Moszkowski's music, like his blood, unites Polish and German elements, his father having been a Pole, while he himself was born at Breslau. His violin concerto is a most valuable addition to the limited repertory for that instrument. In its orchestral part it frequently suggests "Tristan and Isolde" by its modulations and instrumental combinations. The theme of the first movement is vigorous, original, and finely elaborated; the second movement is a sweet, dreamy *andante*;

the third appears of less musical value, but gives the soloist many opportunities to display his powers. The difficulties of execution are frequently very great, as they are not merely of a technical nature, but arise in part from the necessity of connecting the ever changing harmonies by clearness of phrasing and correctness of accentuation. Mr. John F. Rhodes played the solo part with technical ease and elegance, pure intonation, and graceful and delicate movement of the bow. Far from being afraid of difficulties, he chose them where an easier version is offered for choice in the score. A broader and more sonorous tone would have been acceptable in some of the cantabile passages. The novelty was well received by the audience.

GREEN'S "CONQUEST OF ENGLAND."

The Conquest of England. By John Richard Green, M.A., LL.D. Harper & Bros. 1883.

J. R. GREEN once said of himself: "I knew what men will say of me—" He died learning. Nothing in the whole of his works affords a more striking instance of his penetrating insight than this casual remark, recorded in the prefatory memoir which precedes the "Conquest of England." "He died learning." These three words, like all true sayings, have a profound application; they hit exactly the most noteworthy, and yet perhaps the least noted, features of Green's rare and admirable genius. We may indeed doubt whether, like all men of vivid imagination, he did not overrate the intelligence of others. It is quite possible that critics might not of themselves have said of our author what he has said of himself. But the words, once uttered, are a revelation. Any person of ordinary acumen can see their truth. The true source of all that was best in J. R. Green's work was that he died, and one must add also *lived*, learning.

The saying we have cited has two sides. It points, in the first place, to the rarest among the many rare gifts possessed by the deceased historian. Every line of his writing, and even those passages which savor most of paradox, or may on other grounds be open to fair criticism, show that he never lost the inestimable capacity for learning. His mind remained, to the day of his death, open to new truth. He retained, to the end of life, a keener glance for new facts than is generally possessed even by men of high talent or true genius in the vigor of early youth. To compare the author of the "Conquest of England" in this respect with living writers, would be invidious. But one may be allowed to illustrate his pre-eminence in respect of the capacity for receiving new ideas, by comparing him with men whose fame, like his own, has become a portion of English literature. Hallam and Macaulay have each attained a rank among the writers of their country of which a premature death has deprived J. R. Green. One whose course was only beginning can never, from the nature of things, accomplish those lasting results of life-long labor which can be achieved by men to whom nature has given rare gifts of intellect or imagination, and to whom fortune has granted the full length of days during which these gifts may be cultivated and developed. But though our author cannot exhibit such fruits of his labors as have been produced by the writers whom we have named, he may boldly compare with them in respect of openmindedness. Of neither Hallam nor Macaulay would any competent critic speak except in terms of profound respect. Yet whoever has studied their works will see that neither of these eminent men retained at the end of his career the peculiar capacity for receiving new

light which distinguished J. R. Green. Long before Hallam or Macaulay had ended his career, every one knew the way in which each of them would look at the problems—we may almost say at the facts—of history. They each exhibited, to the end of their lives, extraordinary power for seeing and expressing certain aspects of the topics with which they each dealt; they were each assiduous and conscientious workers; they each, therefore, accumulated additional stores of information. But of neither of them could it be said, in the same sense as of Green, that he died learning.

To say this is not to cast a slur on writers worthy of the high fame they have attained. But to point the contrast between them and the author of the 'Conquest of England' is a fair mode of calling attention to one of his noblest qualities. To men of even greater fame than he, the period of growth or development comes to an end at a very early time in their career. They spend the rest of their lives in using their full-grown and matured strength. They develop and work out ideas which came to them in the period of youth and of growth. Green never seems to have stopped growing. Increase of years might no doubt have brought with it some pause in mental development; but those who recall the animated, unresting activity of a mind which seemed more alive at the very point of death than are the souls of most of us in the midst of full health and life, may well believe that age itself would not have dimmed the brightness of that light-loving spirit. One may well suppose that he, like Walter Bagehot, might, however long his life, have remained to its end capable of receiving all the new lessons which might be suggested by new discoveries and new theories. It is, at any rate, clear that his last volume was written by one who, in the midst of a desperate struggle for existence, could not, if he would, have diverted his mind from entering into every new path of speculation which opened to his view.

In nothing, for example, have even the best of English historians shown themselves, with some very rare exceptions, more lamentably blind to important phenomena than in their propensity to neglect the legal aspect of English history. So far has this negligence been carried that at the present moment we may fairly say that the speculations of lawyers are forcing new fields of inquiry upon the notice of historians. It is no marvel that in his earlier works J. R. Green should have been guilty of an oversight shared by writers of high standing and established reputation. What is noticeable is that unmistakable signs are contained in his last volume that he had opened his eyes to the vast importance of law as an explainer of history and as a part of history. The passage on early English jurisprudence, and the chapter on the "England of Ecgberht," put side by side with another passage contained in the chapter on "Wessex and the Danelaw," show plainly enough that our author had turned his mind towards the influence of law. Here, as elsewhere, he was learning to the last. Exactly the same characteristic exhibits itself in a somewhat different form when he is treating of a very different topic, namely, the character of Danish warfare. Any student who has read with any thoughtfulness the accounts of the attacks made by the Northmen on different parts of Europe, must have felt a vague kind of perplexity about the question how it can have happened that hordes of pirates harassed, alarmed, and in many cases conquered countries occupied by settled and comparatively civilized populations. To remain in this condition of vague and uninquiring perplexity was utterly foreign to Green's genius. One can see at a glance that he brought

the whole stores of his knowledge, and the whole force of his vivid imagination, to the solution of a question of which many writers only half realize the difficulty, and therefore leave without a satisfactory reply. We do not assert that Green entirely solves a problem which, even after studying his pages, seems to us to present considerable difficulty; but we do assert that these pages throw great light on an obscure point. As you read Green's account of Danish warfare, the success of the Danes becomes at least comprehensible, and one for the first time realizes all the horror which this success excited in the minds of men who saw civilization itself menaced by a new attack of heathenism and barbarism.

This capacity for taking in at a glance the new and striking aspects of his subject was the main cause of Green's extraordinary literary success. A book written as a manual for students became suddenly one of the most popular works of the day. The 'Short History of the English People' had not been long published before it occupied on every drawing room table the place generally filled by the last popular novel. The book was not written in the interest of any party; its author was not the assailant or apologist of any set of opinions; he propounded no new paradox; he did not tell a new story, but repeated a tale which had been told scores of times before. What, then, was the cause of the triumph achieved by his work? It was to be found in his invention of a new style in narration. He made a "short" history interesting by bringing into relief the salient and the noteworthy aspects of his subject. To do this with effect required, no doubt, remarkable command of all the resources of language; but something much more was needed than mere literary skill. The one quality which was absolutely essential to the due performance of the task Green had set himself, was a clear eye for the great outlines—for the important, and therefore interesting, aspects of English history. In this keenness of vision Mr. Green surpassed almost every other author who has tried to tell the tale of England's greatness. No doubt, with him as with other men, the strong and the weak side of his genius were closely connected together. While his attention was fixed on the great matters which interested himself and his readers, he occasionally fell into minor errors, which were detected by persons of not half his substantial knowledge. But let any critic who remembers Green's description of the effect produced by the translation of the Bible, say whether any one has ever excelled our author in the capacity for making clear to his readers the true significance of the change, which opened to the whole people of England the hitherto-concealed treasures of Hebrew literature.

The 'Conquest of England' deals with a period which gives little scope for the full display of Green's special talent. His art as a narrator conceals from his audience how imperfect is our knowledge, and, we must in common honesty add, how dreary are the details, of the struggles between barbarians and settled races only a trifle less barbarous than their invaders. Put whenever the opportunity arises for using his special talent, Green shows at once that the approach of death did not dim the brightness of his historical imagination. Cnut is, next to Alfred, the greatest of the rulers who come before us in Green's last volume. To most Englishmen he is little better than a name; but students who read these pages will, we are convinced, often feel that they for the first time understand the position and the greatness of the Danish monarch who identified himself with the national feeling of the people to whom by race he was a stranger. Green, we find, had till the

very last day of his life something new to teach us. He died teaching, because he died learning.

But the saying with which we commenced this article has another and deeper significance. It calls our attention to Green's mass of learning and information. His talent as a writer has excited so much admiration that it has indirectly caused some injustice to his eminence as a master of his subject. His knowledge is so much part of himself that uncritical readers hardly realize how great his knowledge in reality was. They do not see that the vigor, the effectiveness, the very brilliancy of his style, is due in no small measure to his complete command of facts. A writer very different from the author of the 'Conquest of England' suffers at the present moment in popular estimation from much the same cause as that which unfairly diminishes Green's reputation for learning. The decision, the resonance, the ring of Macaulay's style strikes every one. It is natural enough that the qualities which for the most part evoke popular admiration are really the source of Macaulay's influence, and more than one imitator has imagined that to catch Macaulay's style was to seize the secret of his power. But whoever has tried the experiment must have found that while to imitate or parody the vices and even the merits of Macaulay's style was easy enough, such imitation always ends in the dreariest of failures. The imitator has seized the form, but has lost the spirit which alone made the form bearable. Macaulay's force lay at bottom in his minute and, so to speak, personal acquaintance with the times in which he wrote. This personal relation to the men of past ages, which occasionally displays itself in the prejudices and passions of a person who might have been actually contemporary with Penn or Marlborough, or Addison or Johnson, produces that fertility of allusion, that aptness of trenchant and superabundant illustration, which is the permanent charm of the celebrated 'History of England,' or of the even more charming 'Critical and Historical Essays.' Yet the majority of the world, because they fancy that Macaulay's real power lies in his style, deny or overlook the amplitude of his knowledge. So it is too apt to be with the current critics of J. R. Green. He is so brilliant as a writer, his skill in presenting to our view the most striking aspect of his subject is so obvious, that even intelligent students overlook, even if they do not deny, the compass of his knowledge. He never plays the pedant, and therefore he never gets with the public full credit for learning. But whoever reads Green's notes on the condition and history of English towns—notes which, as we understand the matter, have not received the last touches that would have been given them by their writer if he had lived—will easily see that he was, in spite of the brilliancy of his style, something much better and greater than a striking writer, and that he died learning because he had lived the studious, concentrated life of a learned man devoted to learning.

BEAUREGARD JUDGED BY HIMSELF. *Military Operations of General Beauregard.* By Alfred Roman. In 2 vols. Harper & Brothers.

THIS book contains much of interest and value. General Beauregard was one of the highest officers in rank in the Confederate service, and was concerned in many important operations during the civil war. The narrative throws light on not a few of the great junctures of that struggle, and is enriched by a mass of official documents, many of which are published for the first time. The arrangement is clear and the style easy and attractive.

When this much has been said, there remains

but little more in praise of this book. Its faults are too many and glaring to be overlooked. The chief sufferer from its publication is likely to be General Beauregard himself, and it had been better for his reputation if he had assumed less directly the responsibility for Colonel Roman's work. The book is not so much a history of General Beauregard's career as it is a fulsome panegyric of him, an overstrained and often disingenuous defence of everything he did, or did not do, during the war, and an unfair and ill-natured critique upon the conduct of his superiors. We believe there is not a single superior officer of General Beauregard that is not disparaged in this book, and accused of damaging, at one time or another, the cause of which General Beauregard is represented as the only ever wise and ever unselfish defender. The object of our author's special hostility is Mr. Davis, but the Confederate Secretaries of War, the chiefs of the war bureaus in Richmond, and Generals Cooper, Lee, A. S. Johnson, J. E. Johnston, besides many of lower rank, come in for their share of criticism; a criticism often ill-judged, in most cases partial, and nearly always truculent.

The author's mode of dealing with history is illustrated by his account of the first battle of Manassas. The facts in regard to this are simple. In July, 1861, the Confederate Government had two principal bodies of troops hastily collected to oppose the invasion of Virginia, threatened by the as hastily gathered levies of the Federal Government. The larger of these, under General Beauregard, held the line of Bull Run, and in its front was the principal Federal army under General McDowell. Beauregard's force was being augmented by new regiments as fast as they could be armed and equipped out of the meagre supplies the South could then command, and by the middle of July numbered about 20,000 men. The other Confederate army, of about 10,000 men, under Gen. J. E. Johnston, was opposing General Patterson's advance into the Shenandoah Valley. Besides these, General Holmes had a small force on the lower Potomac. Both of the larger bodies were greatly inferior to the Federal forces opposing them. McDowell had about 35,000 men and Patterson about 20,000. As McDowell's was the principal Federal army, it was pretty clear that the first serious advance would be made by it. It was also evident that the Confederate forces at Manassas would not grow fast enough to place it on an equality with the army in its front, and therefore General Beauregard suggested the expediency of uniting the forces of Johnston and Holmes with his own for a sudden attack upon the Federal armies in succession. This proposal Beauregard submitted through one of his staff to Mr. Davis on the night of July 14. Generals Cooper and Lee were called in conference by Mr. Davis. The plan required that General Johnston, who was seventy-five miles away, should leave 5,000 men to hold Patterson in check, and rapidly join Beauregard with 20,000. This would double the Confederate force at Manassas and make it superior to McDowell, who was to be attacked and beaten. Then Johnston was to return with his own and 10,000 of Beauregard's men and overwhelm Patterson. Beauregard thought a week would suffice for this, after which Johnston was to reinforce Garnett in West Virginia and destroy McClellan. Then Johnston's and Garnett's forces were to cross the Potomac and attack Washington in rear, while Beauregard assailed it in front. This scheme was rejected as impracticable by all present at the conference, because, 1, Johnston had hardly 10,000 men, instead of 25,000, which Beauregard's plan assumed; 2, McDowell's army was too close to Washington to permit of its being crushed in the way indicated. If pressed,

it could readily fall back to that city and its reserves. Another reason General Beauregard might himself have added: neither of the Confederate armies was supplied with transportation or stores sufficient for the complicated movements mapped out.

On July 17, the third day after this conference, McDowell advanced, and Beauregard telegraphed the fact and asked for reinforcements. Johnston was then ordered to join him if practicable with his effective force, and Holmes was also sent up. Next day occurred Tyler's attempt at Mitchell's Ford, ending in a Federal repulse. Beauregard's report apparently caused the Confederate authorities to think that McDowell had been severely checked, for next day (19th) Beauregard was telegraphed as follows: "We have no intelligence from Gen. Johnston. If the enemy in front of you has abandoned an immediate attack, and Gen. Johnston has not moved, you had better withdraw the call upon him, so that he may be left to his full discretion. . . ." Beauregard, seeing that the Federal army in front was only perfecting its plans for attack, of course did not stop Johnston, who reached Manassas on the 20th, followed by his troops during that night and the next day. As Johnston had merely eluded Patterson, who must soon learn of his movement, both Confederate generals felt that no time was to be lost in fighting McDowell. Johnston was senior, and in command, but, having no time to learn the country or disposition of the troops, adopted Beauregard's plan of attacking McDowell at Centreville next day (21st). The aggressive movements of the Federals early on the 21st prevented the execution of this plan. Beauregard then proposed to check McDowell's movement against the left by attacking with the Confederate right. This, too, was approved and adopted, but the orders sent by Beauregard failed to reach the Confederate right in time. Meantime, McDowell had turned the Confederate left and was pressing back with overwhelming force the troops there stationed. All plans of aggression were now abandoned in order to resist McDowell's attack, and a battle, unforeseen in character, location, and disposition of troops, ensued. Both generals hastened to the point of danger and exerted themselves successfully to stay the progress of the Federals. Johnston then left Beauregard in command of the troops engaged, and, taking a position with reference to the whole field, devoted himself to hastening forward reinforcements. These came up so promptly that Beauregard, taking advantage of the check which Jackson's stubborn stand had wrought, was soon able to resume the offensive, and within short time the Federals were not only defeated but routed and driven with fearful panic across Bull Run.

Mr. Davis reached the field after the battle was over, and that night, when the panic of the Federal army had become partially known, was anxious for an immediate advance toward Washington. Both generals thought this inadvisable, so great was the exhaustion and confusion in the Confederate ranks produced by the battle, and so inadequate the stock of supplies and transportation then available. On the night of the 22d, at another conference, the generals declared it was impracticable to cross the Potomac or to advance at once on Washington in the wake of the defeated army. Mr. Davis seems to have been satisfied with the propriety of this judgment, and the idea was abandoned.

Such are the facts. Let us see what Colonel Roman makes of them. On the basis of the reduction of Fort Sumter, General Beauregard's skill and reputation are spoken of in the most extravagant terms. He then describes the proposal of July 14 as a stroke of genius, and says:

"A high tribunal, composed of the President, Generals Cooper and Lee, took upon itself to check and render barren the strategic powers so greatly developed in General Beauregard, and in which the immortal Jackson alone is acknowledged to have been his peer." Over and over again, with tiresome iteration, are Davis, Cooper, and Lee denounced for not committing themselves without hesitation to a scheme utterly impracticable as Beauregard put it, since it assumed nearly three times as many troops with Johnston as he actually had. Had the troops been at hand, half-drilled, inexperienced, badly equipped, with insufficient transportation, as they were, the chances of success would not have been more than one in one hundred, and there is nothing in General Beauregard's subsequent career to lead to the conviction that he was the man to seize that single chance. Again, the despatch of the 19th is tortured to mean a withdrawal of assent to the union of Johnston and Beauregard, and the latter is highly praised for pocketing the despatch and thus insuring the junction of the two forces, while Mr. Davis is unsparingly condemned for sending it. The despatch shows for itself. Johnston was not to be stopped unless McDowell had abandoned his immediate attack, and even then discretion was left with Johnston (the senior officer) as to his movements. McDowell had not abandoned his attack, and therefore Beauregard did simply his duty in holding the despatch. Colonel Roman goes on to say:

"We assert it as an incontrovertible truth, fully proved by later events, that the President of the Confederacy, by neglecting to compel his Q. M. General to procure the transportation which could have been easily procured more than a month before the battle of Manassas; by refusing, as early as the thirteenth of June, to assent to General Beauregard's urgent request that authority should be given to concentrate our forces at the proper moment at Manassas Junction; by again refusing, on the fifteenth of July, to allow him to execute his bold, offensive plans against the enemy, the certain result of which would have been the taking of Washington—that the President of the Confederacy, by thus persisting in these three lamentable errors, lost the South her independence."

It is hard to tell whether the absurdity or the vanity of this statement is most striking. That the Quartermaster and Commissary, as well as all other departments of the Confederate Government and army, were new and in many respects inefficient, was certainly the case; but probably no country without any military establishment or central government, and peopled by citizens untrained to war for generations, ever acted with greater energy than did the South in the three months between the opening of the war and the battle of Manassas in raising and supplying armies. The victory of Manassas is itself one of the best proofs of this. General Beauregard is entitled to a large share of credit for this remarkable victory, and we think this has been accorded to him; but it must have been under some malign star that he allowed his biographer to make such claims as we have quoted.

Our author continues in the same strain in regard to Beauregard's position on the field of Manassas, about which there is no proper room to doubt. He was second in command under Johnston, who adopted his plans until McDowell's advance checkmated them, when each in his sphere did his best to secure success—Beauregard as commander of the troops engaged, and Johnston as commander-in-chief. After the battle Johnston was strongly opposed to advancing, and so, too, was Beauregard for a time. But Colonel Roman, through many pages, labors to prove that Johnston had nothing to do with the battle of Manassas except to act as a

dead weight upon the soaring genius of Beauregard; and he only ceases to abuse Mr. Davis and the Quartermaster-General for not permitting him to take Washington, in order to criticise (in milder terms, it is true) General Johnston for the same fault. Yet while there are plenty of complaints of others, and numerous suggestions as to matters beyond his jurisdiction, there is no practicable plan of offensive campaign, after Manassas, proposed by General Beauregard.

A similar tone pervades the whole book. When General Beauregard is sent to the West, he finds everything wrong in Gen. A. S. Johnston's department. The line of defence has been badly chosen, the works to strengthen it have been laid out without judgment, the vital importance of the defence of the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers has not been foreseen or properly provided for. General Beauregard promptly proposes a plan of operations to counteract these blunders. It is not adopted, and hence follow, in his opinion, the fall of Donelson and the subsequent disasters of the Confederates. Again, it is General Beauregard who, in spite of the indifference or opposition of his Government, and without the aid of his commanding officer, collects and organizes an army at Corinth, urges and finally induces General Johnston to unite his forces with it, and plans and does everything about the battle of Shiloh—except to fight it. General Beauregard is made to stand out as a solitary rock in a sea of incompetency and petty jealousy. Yet when the chief command devolved upon Beauregard, by the death of Johnston, we see little to justify Colonel Roman's estimate of his ability. A great victory was just within the grasp of the Confederates. It was allowed to slip away from them. Next day the tables were turned, and Beauregard was forced to retire to Corinth. Weeks followed, during which not a single stroke by the Confederates checked the onward progress of the Federal arms in the West. Beauregard's strategy consisted in sacrificing garrisons along the Mississippi, and in waiting at Corinth until the advance of the Federal army made a retreat necessary. He then fell back, with losses the amount of which is matter of dispute, to Tupelo. Yet these feeble operations are extravagantly lauded by our author.

One of General Beauregard's striking propensities seems to have been to draw up elaborate plans of operation on every possible occasion and for everybody. These schemes are usually based upon the maxim that it is wise to concentrate one's own masses against the fragments of the enemy. This rather obvious maxim is repeated time and again, as if it were not apt to occur to any one besides General Beauregard himself. The maxims of war are simple enough, the difficulty lies in their application. There is nothing in the retreat from Corinth, and still less in the retreat before Sherman through South Carolina, to show exceptional readiness or skill on the part of the Confederate leader in the application of his own maxim. But so large were the views of General Beauregard that they were seldom confined to his own department. He was ever ready, without solicitation, to prove to his superiors, from the President down, that he knew their business better than they did themselves, and Colonel Roman is never tired of assuring us that the result of the war would have been different if General Beauregard's genius had been allowed full scope. Prophet like, Beauregard continued to deliver his message, whether heeded or not; and even when the Confederacy was in *extremis*, and when all his energy should have been directed to concentrating the troops of his department on Sher-

man's front, he found time to say to Mr. Davis: "I earnestly urge a concentration, in time, of at least 35,000 infantry and artillery, at Salisbury, if possible, to give him battle there and crush him; then to concentrate all forces against Grant, and then to march on Washington to dictate a peace. . . ." Colonel Roman zealously defends this proposition against the criticisms of Badeau, who attributed it to ill health. Sometimes a man's enemies are kinder than his friends.

General Beauregard's ideas of official propriety were in some respects singular. He early became engaged in controversy with Mr. Davis about his report of the first battle of Manassas, to which he prefixed unnecessary and improper statements. Most remarkable, however, is the complaint made about his removal from command after his retreat from Corinth. The Confederate army had just fallen back before overwhelming forces, the Mississippi seemed about to fall into Federal hands. It was the first of June, when the Union armies might be expected to push their advantage with increasing vigor. At this juncture, without conference, and without any notice beyond a telegraphic despatch to his Government, General Beauregard proposed to leave his army, on a surgeon's certificate, to seek rest and recuperation at a distant watering-place. General Bragg, the next officer in rank, had been ordered elsewhere by his Government, but General Beauregard retained him, turned over the command to him, and actually left his post for the purpose indicated. The Richmond authorities promptly relieved Beauregard and placed Bragg permanently in command, and yet Colonel Roman, with the sanction of General Beauregard, bitterly complains of the injustice and harshness of the Confederate Administration! Mr. Davis has always been represented as being possessed of no little infirmity of temper, but after reading this book we have come to the conclusion that his faults in this respect have been grossly exaggerated.

Colonel Roman's book is so filled with indiscriminate praise of General Beauregard, and indiscriminate blame of nearly everybody else, is so taken up with showing what "might have been," and in pointing out how it was always somebody else's fault that General Beauregard's splendid schemes failed of their end—how, for instance, it was the lack of the car-load of generals, which was denied him, that paralyzed the Confederates at Shiloh; how it was Whiting that saved Butler from ruin at Petersburg; how it was Hood alone that destroyed the Confederate army in Tennessee; how it was Hardee that lingered in Charleston so long as to defeat a concentration in Sherman's front—that we are apt to lose sight of General Beauregard's real achievements. These were solid. The defence of Charleston, on which General Beauregard's military reputation will rest most firmly, was a fine exhibition of engineering skill and of indomitable energy and determination. It will give him a high rank among military engineers long after the extravagant claims set up by Colonel Roman in regard to his skill as a strategist shall have been forgotten.

MINOR FAUST-LITERATURE.

Goethe und Kein Ende. Rede bei Antritt des Rectorats der Königl. Friedrich-Wilhelms-Universität zu Berlin am 15 October 1882 gehalten von Emil du Bois-Reymond. Leipzig. 1883.

Die vegetarische Weltanschauung in Goethe's Faust. Vortrag gehalten am 22 Januar 1883 im Musiksäle der Königlichen Universität zu Breslau von Max Engelmann. Breslau. 1883.

Das Buch Hiob und Goethe's Faust. Vortrag gehalten im Kaufmännischen Verein zu Darmstadt von Dr. Julius Landsberger. Darmstadt. 1882.

PROFESSOR DU BOIS-REYMOND'S address consists of several lines of reflection suggested by passages in "Faust," and is especially interesting as containing the conclusions of its author concerning the merits of Goethe as a scientific investigator. Commenting first upon the saying of Mephistopheles:

"Grau, theurer Freund, ist alle Theorie,
Und grün des Lebens goldner Baum;"

the speaker points out the real dualism of such doctrine for the university student, and then passes on to notice the fact that Goethe is constantly pressing this antithesis between theory and life, and always at the expense of the former. He is forever preaching his gospel of practical activity and physical enjoyment, and seeming to set these above mental toil and the joys of the lonely thinker. But surely the mass of men are sufficiently inclined to pleasure by nature, and as for work, they are compelled to it. How then is Goethe's oft-repeated counsel to be justified or even understood? By way of answering this question the address propounds a theory that Goethe's gospel of work was due to an original defect in his own endowment. Instead of possessing that perfect equilibrium of powers which has been so much wondered at, he was by nature indolent, and his philosophy of life was influenced by his own conscientious effort to overcome this weakness. He assumed that others were like himself, and hence his frequent and urgent advice, so superfluous to the great majority, "resolut zu leben." (But the question is, after all, whether laziness like that of Goethe is not a more widely diffused fact of human nature than the Berlin professor supposes.)

Attention is then drawn to the "psychological untruth" of Faust's character. He purports to end his life because he sees that "we can know nothing." But the will to live is always stronger than the desire of knowledge, and then, too, Faust's *ignorabimus* has no sense. He believes from the outset in a spirit-world, he talks with spirits, yet he professes to be in doubt about a future life, and he bewails the loss of his early religious faith. What need of faith in one for whom sight has already solved the all-important questions? Or why should one who is cheek by jowl with a personal devil refuse, when catechized by Margaret, to admit a personal God? The explanation offered for these incongruities—and it may be said in passing that neither the difficulty nor the solution is at all new—is that the supernaturalism in "Faust" is a part of its sixteenth-century costume; beneath the costume we find people of a later time.

The discussion of Goethe's scientific standing comes apropos of the lines in "Faust" beginning:

"Ihr Instrumente freilich spottet mein."

It is remarked that these lines express Goethe's deep-seated aversion to the methods of the laboratory—that is, to physical experiment and the mathematical treatment of the same. This aversion is the occasion of the polemic against Newton. What Goethe lacked—so Du Bois-Reymond judges—was the idea of mechanical causality, an idea which from the very nature of the human mind must lie at the basis of physical science. But Goethe took no interest in causes. He confined himself to a purely graphical description of facts, or, in his experimenting, he merely tried to bring one phenomenon out of another and to note the result in much the same temper as one watches the transformation of one cloud-image into another. In spite, there-

fore, of Goethe's undoubted successes in lines of investigation where this sense of mechanical causality is of less importance, and where the artistic sense of form is available as an instrument of research, that is to say, in animal and plant morphology. Du Bois-Reymond is of the opinion that "without Goethe's efforts science would be just as far advanced as it now is." Objection is made to Haeckel's regarding Goethe as a precursor of Darwin; for though the poet certainly had the idea of the kinship or common descent of all living forms, yet the essential and important thing was not to get hold of this idea, but to find the proofs of it. From Darwinism, as we understand it, Goethe would have turned away in disgust. But what need any one care—the address asks in conclusion—about the exact value of Goethe's scientific studies? Like the poetry of Frederick the Great, the science of Goethe should be allowed to rest, and not be continually extolled to the uncritical multitude to the provocation of those who know better.

Thoroughly pleasant is the impression which Herr Engelmann's address leaves upon the mind, although an attempt to present Goethe as an apostle of vegetarianism might seem in advance a little precarious. But the vegetarianism of Herr Engelmann, we are assured, is no mere question of the stomach: it is a "poetic principle in the fullest sense of the word"; the "only possible solution of the social question"; an "important philosophy which is now victoriously advancing everywhere, opposing itself alike to fantastic idealism and to crass materialism." After a preliminary clearing of the ground, Herr Engelmann defines the vegetarian position about as follows: We can recognize no better or higher aim in life than to enjoy that life with every fibre of our being to the last breath, and that the rather since the most of us do not believe in a future life for the individual. The gaining of eternal bliss does not interest us, since we can form no conception of it, and the idea of non-existence affords us an equal satisfaction. The earth, in its manifoldness, suffices us. Nature is our paradise, for we understand her language and submit ourselves joyfully to her laws. That which others call the universe or God, we silently honor as the Eternal Riddle. For the vegetarian, therefore, as for Faust, the supreme question is the question of enjoyment; and, like Faust, he finds this at last in simply accepting the human situation, ignorance and pain included, and going briskly to work for the comfort of his neighbors. Herr Engelmann goes through the entire drama, to conclude ultimately that it is "a history of the development of the vegetarian—that is, of the healthy, natural philosophy which shuts out all extremes."

Rabbi Landsberger's oration draws an interesting parallel between "Faust" and the book of Job. Each poem has its prologue in heaven. Each is founded upon a popular religious saga already in existence. Both heroes are tempted by the devil in the direction of moral ruin, and the devil is in each case commissioned by the Lord, with definite restriction of powers. In the one case, the tempter's instrument is misfortune; in the other, it is pleasure. Both heroes succumb temporarily, and both are finally saved by one and the same power—namely, love.

When one sees what all can be, with more or less plausibility, read out of or read into Goethe's wonderful drama, one is reminded of the Manager's words in the prelude:

"Ein jeder sucht sich endlich selbst was aus.
Wer vieles bringt, wird manchem etwas bringen.
Und jeder geht zufrieden aus dem Hause."

Mozart. By Dr. F. Gehring. [Hueffer's Great Musicians Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons, 1883.

DR. GEHRING'S monograph on Mozart consists of 130 pages, and forms a useful addition to Dr. Hueffer's series of musical biographies. It does not contain much that is new, but collates the well known facts, with occasionally an excessive regard for insignificant dates and details. The greater part of the book relates to Mozart's early life, which gives rise to the suspicion that the author commenced his work on too large a scale, and was subsequently forced to economize space. But the truth is, that more is known of Mozart's childhood than of that of any other composer, owing to the preservation of the valuable family correspondence; while later in life his operas and concert pieces did not receive that attention in the political and musical press which similar compositions would receive at present. Mozart enjoyed considerable popularity during his lifetime, but few had an idea of the greatness of his genius. Among his chief admirers were Haydn and Gluck. On one occasion, after playing the violin part in some new quartets, Mozart taking the viola, Haydn exclaimed to Mozart's father: "I tell you, by God, and as an honest man, that I acknowledge your son to be the greatest composer of whom I have ever heard; he has taste, and possesses the most thorough knowledge of composition." And it is reported that his great rival and enemy, Salieri, said, after Mozart's death: "It is indeed a pity for the great genius, but well for us, that he is dead; for, had he lived longer, no one would have given us a crust of bread for our compositions." At the present day no one would give a crust of bread for a composition of Salieri's, nor for the opera "Cosa Rara," by a musician named Martin, which supplanted Mozart's "Figaro" after its ninth performance. Very curious are the opinions passed on an earlier opera, "Die Entführung aus dem Serail," which has now almost completely disappeared from the stage, as its music appears too "thin" for modern taste. In 1782 it was judged differently. "A great deal too many notes, my dear Mozart," said the Emperor; and Mozart replied, "Exactly as many notes as are necessary, your Majesty." It was also urged that the accompaniment overpowered the singers! These criticisms probably originated among the ancient Greeks the first time a voice was accompanied by one or two instruments in unison, and have been urged ever since against every noted composer by his contemporaries. And yet it is often asserted that man is a reasoning animal, who learns by experience to avoid the follies of his ancestors.

Those things in Mozart's compositions which were most severely criticised in his day we now admire most; and those which he wrote to please his contemporaries are consigned to oblivion. That he often did make concessions to the prevailing taste is clear, and we have his own word for it. His father once urged him to bear in mind the unmusical public, and not forget the "Popolare," that tickles long ears. Mozart replied, "Do not trouble about the 'Popolare,' for in my operas there is music for all sorts of people, not excepting those with long ears." The necessity of working for a living and attaining a certain amount of popularity may excuse these concessions to some extent; but to us they render many of Mozart's works, despite occasional tidbits, unpalatable in their entirety. It might be supposed that the excitement-loving, pessimistic audiences of our day would be fond of Mozart for a change; but his uninterrupted good humor and placidity are almost exasperating. Perhaps they would be more relished were it not for the monotonous, stereo-

typed cadences which break up his compositions into regular eight bar divisions, like the independent segments of some of the lowest animals, which are not inseparably united with the rest of the body, but are capable of leading an independent life if severed from it. Owing to their artificial, inorganic form, most of Mozart's piano-forte compositions and symphonies are dead, notwithstanding the exquisite passages which many of them contain. He will live chiefly through some of his chamber compositions and his three best operas: "Don Juan," "Magic Flute," "Figaro." These have in them the elements of immortality, and are at present, in Germany, second in popularity to Wagner's operas only. In the last act of "Don Juan," Mozart forsakes his lyric boundaries, and his style distinctly foreshadows the modern music-drama. He died at thirty five. Had he lived another thirty five years, and accepted the offer of the King of Prussia at a salary of 3,000 thalers, instead of starving and working himself to death in ungrateful Vienna, we might now have a dozen more "Don Juans," some of which would perhaps equal "Lohengrin" in dramatic truthfulness. For Mozart was essentially a dramatic composer, whose inspiration warmed with the intensity and interest of the situation. His chief mission was to irrigate the rich harmonic fields of German music with the limpid stream of Italian melody. He did little to develop musical form, but he advanced the art of instrumentation by many new and beautiful devices. He cultivated every branch of his art, but has been surpassed in every branch by other composers—by Beethoven, Schumann, Rubinstein, in chamber music and symphonies; by Weber and Wagner in opera. Schubert is a more original melodist; Bach, Chopin, Schumann, Liszt, and Wagner more profound harmonists.

Scientific Results of the Vega Expedition. (Vega-expeditionen vetenskapliga takttagelser). Svo, pp. 516, 32 pl. Stockholm, 1883.

THE second volume of the observations and results of the Vega expedition around Europe and Asia has lately been issued, and in the variety and interest of its contents is not inferior to the first volume, which we have previously noticed in these columns. The contents, except when otherwise noted, are in the Swedish language, but will be translated into German for wider circulation ere long. Dr. Kjellman opens the volume by an account of the flowering plants of St. Lawrence Island, Alaska. One hundred and thirteen species are noted, of which eleven belong to the grasses and nine each to the Ranunculaceae and Composite. Fifty-one species are common to Spitzbergen, and sixty-two to East Greenland; three new forms are figured. This is followed by an account of the plants of West Eskimo-land, in which the collection is compared with Seemann's memoir contained in the botany of the *Herald's* voyage. A new Draba is figured.

Nordqvist follows with an account of the mammals of the Siberian coasts. Interesting details are given in regard to the wild and tame reindeer, and the little tame reindeer of the north of Europe are compared with the fine animals of the Chukchi. The Chukchi hare, a new variety of the Arctic *Lepus timidus*, is figured and described. A bat is supposed to inhabit Chukchi land, but in view of the absence of trees or caves, and the severity of the winter climate, this must be considered doubtful until specimens are obtained. The snow sheep of Eschscholtz (*Ovis nivicola*), which was heard of but not seen by them, is doubtfully referred to as *Ovis montana*, the American form, which it certainly is not. Altogether the region shows (not including whales) twenty-nine species, of

which seventeen or eighteen are truly terrestrial.

Dr. Nathorst contributes an important memoir on the fossil plants of Japan, illustrated by sixteen fine plates. Seventy-seven species are mentioned or described, of which about thirty per cent, are common to the leaf-bearing strata of Alaska.

Lieutenant Nordqvist gives us a general account of the language, religion, and physical characteristics of the Chukchi. Much of this has appeared elsewhere. He found the average height of the men to be about five feet five inches, and of the women five feet and half an inch. The height varied, however, among men from five feet eleven to four feet eleven inches, and among the women from five feet eight and a half inches to four feet eight and a half inches. Experience further south with the inland Chukchi gives the impression that they are taller, on the whole, than the above inhabitants of the Arctic coast. The proportions of the skull also varied from extreme dolichocephaly to sub-brachycephaly, as has been observed by previous travellers. Indeed, many of the heads of these curious people, especially among the Karaks, their near relatives and neighbors, seem almost unnaturally distorted, and would drive a phrenologist to despair.

Otto Pettersson reports on the properties of water and ice, and on the hydrography of the Siberian Sea, in the English language. The former paper excited much attention among hydrographers when a summary in Swedish first appeared under the auspices of the Academy at Stockholm. We have here the full report, written with admirable lucidity. The author devised special instruments for his investigations, and accompanied the Swedish expedition to Spitzbergen for the purpose of settling some moot points. Among the more important researches contained in it are those on the changes of volume of pure and impure water and ice under changing temperatures. Sea ice is found to expand enormously from the freezing point down to a certain temperature, which depends on the chemical impurities contained in the water. A very small admixture of saline matters alters in an extraordinary degree the physical properties of the ice. From the undefined point above mentioned, sea ice slowly contracts. Pure ice, on the other hand, expands from the freezing point to a point less than a degree lower, when it begins to contract slowly but continuously, and with great regularity. Hence the crushing and fissuring of salt ice by sudden fall in temperature is ascribed by Pettersson, not to contraction (as formerly supposed), and as is the case in freshwater ice), but to the great expansion of the upper layers, away from the sea water. It was the opinion until recently that in the process of freezing the ice excluded its salts, and that such as remained in it were merely mechanically-entangled particles of brine or salt crystals. Pettersson shows that ocean water is divided by the process of freezing into two saliniferous parts, a solid and a liquid, of different chemical constitution. The ice is richer in sulphates, the brine in chlorides. Cryohydrates also form in crystals almost as stable as the ice itself. Time and changes of temperature continue in the ice the processes which were begun in the water, and more and more of the chlorides are eliminated. Sea ice is the reverse of homogeneous, and in a state of nature is subject to constant change. A factor in the climate of the Arctic regions which has been overlooked is pointed out to exist in the latent heat given out by water at the moment of freezing. The water of the Gulf Stream, for instance, may arrive in the Arctic seas with a temperature of 32° F. only, yet on

freezing, the latent heat given out (which has actually been carried from the tropics) must modify to a certain extent the superincumbent atmosphere.

In his second paper Pettersson discusses the hydrography of the Kara Sea and of the Siberian Sea. In the latter the main mass of the fresh water derived from any one of the large Siberian rivers was always found somewhat eastward from its mouth, while an influx of cold bottom water from northward was always drawn in to fill the vacancy. This indicates the easterly set of these waters beyond controversy. At Bering Strait the observations were rather sparse, but indicated the absence of any polar current. The aborigines stated that in autumn and winter the current through the strait was in a southerly direction, at other times it was the reverse of this. The warmest water encountered by the *Vega* in Bering Strait, away from the direct influence of the shores, was 45° F. (6.5 C.), which agrees very well with the Coast Survey observations.

Dr. Wirkönen discusses the Chaetopod annelids of the expedition at considerable length, and his paper is illustrated by several plates. Several new or particularly interesting forms were obtained. Dr. Wijkander contributes a first paper on the magnetism of the *Vega* party, which is in the French language. Observations were made at twelve stations besides those in Sweden. They present nothing remarkable. At Pitlekai the diurnal variations were intermediate between the true Arctic and temperate types. The principal easterly maximum occurred at 9 A. M., and 9 P. M. There was a weak westerly maximum about 2 P. M. These results accord with those of Mr. Marcus Baker, of the U. S. Coast Survey, taken at various points in the adjacent region. The concluding paper of the volume, by Arvid Lindhagen, summarizes the determinations of latitude and time for localities between Nova Zembla and Bering Strait.

George Washington. By John Habberton, author of 'Helen's Babies,' etc. [Lives of American Worthies.] Henry Holt & Co. 1884. Pp. 345.

In the preface to this work we find a justification of the aim and style of this "unconventional" series of books, with much of which we agree. We, too, would paint men and things as they were, without overmuch regard to the dignity of the historic muse; and we agree that Washington, like other heroes of the series, has suffered from being treated too much like "a tea-shop chrono." We do not suppose that the projectors of the series really intended "to be little the great personages of American history." On the other hand, we cannot agree that famous men should be written about "in the manner that is the rule in familiar conversation about historic characters." Much easy rhetoric and off-hand jesting does very well in "familiar conversation," which reads poorly enough; just as we would not paint the portrait of Washington as he looked when just returned from a ride in a hot spring day over the muddy acres of his plantation. Mr. Habberton tells the story of Washington's life for the most part in good style and with an excellent spirit; but if some friend could have gone over his manuscript and run his pen through all the passages which appear to have been called out by the special requirements of the series, his book would have been vastly improved. It would then have been really an unconventional sketch; the funny parts are generally conventional. For example (p. 116), where Washington, "in his anger, even dashed his hat upon the ground,

which was very injudicious, for new hats were not easy to get just then"—the joke is good enough in itself, and the fact it alludes to is worth mentioning; but the introduction of the joke at this point interrupts the narrative and diverts the attention of the reader. But we will do Mr. Habberton the justice to say that in the main he has kept his disposition to joke very well under control.

Wisdom, Wit, and Pathos of Ouida's Works. By F. Sidney Morris. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

A VOLUME of extracts from "Ouida's" novels has at least the advantage of showing how small a proportion of her work will bear quotation, after the descriptions are counted out. These have always been recognized as beautiful and vivid; but of the good things we have in novels, good description (except of character) is the most abundant, so we care the less to have it cut out for us. Of such selections in general, there is a word needful as to the difference between taking from such an author as Ruskin (who was one of the first to be served up in this way), and from any writer of fiction. Of the first class, all comes from the writer's own standpoint. In a novel, he may speak in his own person or in that of any character, from the villain to the saint; so that the quotations, given as they must be without reference, may do gross injustice to the writer, as well as be false to reason and right.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, R. C. History of the United States in Rhyme. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 50 cents.
Alcott, Dr. W. A. Tea and Coffee. Fowler & Wells. 25 cents.
A Fool's Paradise: A Story of Fashionable Life in Washington. In rhyme. Washington: W. H. Morrison. 25 cents.
Ashton, John. The Adventures and Discourses of Captain John Smith. Printed in old-style type. Cassell & Co. \$1.25.
Barnes's New National Readers. Nos. 1, 2, and 3. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Barnes, T. W. The Life of Thurlow Weed. Vol. II. Memoir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$7.50 per set.
Blackburn, F. A. The Essentials of Latin Grammar. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. \$1.10.
Brehm's Tierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 113-120. B. Westermann & Co.
Caird, Sir J. India: The Land and the People. Cassell & Co.
Cator, J. D. The Antelope and Deer of America. Second edition. Forest and Stream Publishing Co.
Croker, B. M. Pretty Miss Neville. A novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Delitzsch, Dr. F. The Hebrew Language Viewed in the Light of Assyrian Research. London: Williams & Norgate.
Draheim, H. Deutsche Reime. Inschriften des 15. Jahrhunderts und der folgenden. Berlin: Weltmannische Buchhandlung.
Ebsteln, Dr. W. Corpulence and its Treatment on Physiological Principles. Brentano Bros.
Farm Conveniences. 212 illustrations. Orange Judd Co. \$1.50.
Fricke, F. W. Erziehungs- und Unterrichtslehre. Mannheim: J. Beuthscheiner.
High, J. L. The Conquest of England. Harper & Brothers.
Guyot, A. Creation, or the Biblical Cosmogony in the Light of Modern Science. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.
Harland, Marion. Cookery for Beginners. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. \$1.
High, J. L. A Treatise on Extraordinary Legal Remedies, embracing Mandamus, Quo Warranto, and Prohibition. Second edition. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Household Conveniences: being the Experience of Many Practical Writers. 220 illustrations. Orange Judd Co. \$1.50.
Hudson, J. R. Tables for Calculating the Cubic Contents of Excavations and Embankments. John Wiley & Sons. 75 cents.
Jeans, W. T. The Creators of the Age of Steel. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.
Lowell, E. J. The Hessians and the Other German Auxiliaries of Great Britain in the Revolutionary War. Harper & Brothers.
McCarthy, J. A Short History of Our Own Times. Harper & Brothers.
McCosh, James. Locke's Theory of Knowledge with a Notice of Berkeley. Philosophical series. No. V. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
The Maze, or the Winkworth Puzzle. A Story in Letters, by Nine Authors. Macmillan & Co. \$1.25.
Thorold, Rev. A. W. The Yoke of Christ in the Duties and Circumstances of Life. \$1.25.
Toy, Prof. C. H. Quotations in the New Testament. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Tracy, R. S. A Hand-book of Military Information for Householders. D. Appleton & Co.
Tuffet, H. R. Songs of the Normal Music Course, with accompaniments for the Pianoforte. D. Appleton & Co.
Turgenev, Ivan. Mumu: and the Diary of a Superfluous Man. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Williams, R. E. Cremation and other Modes of Sepulture. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.

Worman, Prof. J. H., and Monsanto, Prof. H. M. First Spanish Book. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Fine Arts.

MR. WALTERS'S ART GALLERY.

THE collection of pictures and Oriental bronzes, carvings, enamels, etc., etc., made by Mr. W. T. Walters has long been famous to connoisseurs as containing some of the most valuable examples of various branches of art, Eastern and Western, known to collectors. It opened last week to invited guests, and has been placed at the disposal of the Decorative Art Society on the Wednesdays of March and April, for public exhibition for charitable purposes. It is, for this hemisphere, unique and likely to remain so, and should, for its pictures alone, be sufficient to make any man famous, not only for its catholicity and the intrinsic value of the individual pictures, but for the number of pictures which have become classic or are known to be the *chef's d'œuvre* of their respective painters. There is Delaroche's small repetition of the Hemicycle of the Ecole des Beaux Arts, the work which more than any other in existence represents the learning of the school of which Delaroche was one of the most illustrious examples, and at the same time the highest success in modern times of distinctly academical work in painting. The excessive (and in our way of thinking, disastrous) devotion rendered to the purely personal and individual qualities of art has brought Delaroche into a comparative neglect, which far more than balances the high popularity he attained in the day when he painted his "Queen Elizabeth," the "Princes in the Tower," and other works which were grateful to common-sense people bewildered by the state to which French Renaissance painters had brought their art, but who were not prepared to accept the romanticism of Delacroix or to consider the *tant soit peu* panoramic and realistic painting of Horace Vernet as true art. Delaroche was a distinct painter of history, but, as fortune would have it, rather a painter of historical ideals than of historical incidents. In the "Death of Queen Elizabeth" it was the type and character of the Queen which he rendered, without concerning himself in the least to procure, after the manner of the restorers of to-day, Elizabethan furniture for the room. He had intellectual rather than artistic ideals to realize, and while his work lacks the *brio* of such men as Delacroix, Géricault, Decamps, and other passionate painters, he had a serene and certain power, and a secure method which was far from weak or even without a certain technical inspiration. He was, in fact, a strong, deliberate painter, who united the best traditions of the Academy to great technical powers and thorough appreciation of the dignity and worth of orthodox Italian art, without being, like Ingres, a devotee to it. In the Hemicycle what imposes on criticism and makes the picture, in spite of its spectacular quality and its being composed entirely of second-hand material, a work of great and true art, is the nobility of pose and action of all the *pictura personarum*, and the way in which the composer has managed the very difficult undertaking of grouping together an enormous assemblage of distinguished men, of whom none shall be permitted to lose their distinction, none shall be awkward, and none depreciated. Raphael alone, in the "School of Athens," has succeeded as well in such an undertaking, and he had liberty of choice in material, costume, type, and personalities which Delaroche had not. Every figure in Delaroche's picture is a portrait, in accordance with the best authority known, and this alone will show how great the

difficulties and the success of the work. The *esthétique* of the work was inevitably sacrificed to a certain extent to such various and rigorous conditions as were imposed on the subject, but is still far from weak, the drawing of the figures being in many cases very beautiful, and the composition of the various groups dramatic and harmonious at once. The Hemicycle is too well known to need description or criticism, but it is a consolation, in the day of a morbid quest of individuality, often running into sheer and mere eccentricity, to look at work which was conceived in the Olympian calm and carried out in the gravity and deliberateness of this. It is a perpetual lesson to our petty, sparkling geniuses, inculcating the value of academic routine and hard unflinching labor.

The collection is rich not only in having good examples of various schools, but pictures which have marked phases of these schools and which belong to the history of art—part of the documents on which our art education has been based. Some of our readers can remember vividly the advent of the Düsseldorf Gallery here, and would recognize a marine, by A. Achenbach, which was one of its most striking pictures, and is now in Mr. Walters's collection. Others will recognize the "Lost Illusions" of Gleyre, the galley floating away into the twilight—visionary barque charged with angelic forms, the illusions of youth and hope, drifting into the land of dreams, the twilight of memory; a pathetic and poetical picture, as remote from the realism of our present art as the Hemicycle. Here, too, is the "Edict of Charles V.," by Baron Ley, one of the few modern painters to whom it has been given to produce a new type in art, and who stands alone among European painters of his time as master of that rare and precious quality in historical painting, the dramatic unity of his assemblages. A certain archaic manner of being, a resuscitated air, as if the company had just left the palace of the Sleeping Beauty, marks his personages and gives the picture the air of an awaking of the Middle Ages; but it derives from the inherent vitality and dramatic conception of the whole that this antique exterior strikes one with such vivid force. The composition seems but a chance market crowd, suddenly struck motionless by enchantment, every one where his own purposes had led him, with nothing academic or artificial in the getting together, but with such coherence as might be expected from a vivid imagination striking out the whole picture instantly. And the huddled, antique town behind has the same air, and makes one wish that Netherlandish towns were now what they once were. Of Isabey, one of the strong original painters of the picturesque of the French school, antiquated now, having taken his first medal in 1824, there is a fine bit of dancing sea, with a fishing boat painted in a style which goes with that of Dupré, and two drawings which are admirable in their freedom and picturesqueness. Ary Scheffer contributes a drawing for the "Temptation on the Mount," a picture long become classic, in spite of great technical shortcomings, for its singular expression of the spiritual nature in the physical form; and another for the "Dante and Beatrice," of which Mr. C. C. Perkins has the finished picture.

Of Jules Breton a charming little picture shows his happiest vein, "The Close of the Day," two women standing in the sunset light, resting on their rakes in the grain field; and another, better in technique if not in subject, a girl coming down a sloping path with a jar of water, of which the landscape is excellently painted. A Calame, "The Jungfrau," is another of those distinctive forms of art which have in their time had their part in making the landscape

painting of the day. Of these the painter painted few and is better known by his lithographs, of which he did many. But no gallery of modern art could be complete which had not a Calame. To Jalabert is credited a picture which is known as widely as any modern religious picture, the "Christian Martyr" of Delaroche, whose the original is this being a replica commenced by Delaroche and completed by Jalabert; one of those few works of Delaroche's later time when, feeling the shadow of death coming, he began to paint pictures that expressed the deep religious feeling with which he awaited the eclipse—a sweet dead face of a young girl this, floated by the river as she drifts, with her hands tied, down the current, the halo of martyrdom above her head.

A flower piece and fruit piece of Saint Jean are models of true flower painting, and can hardly be surpassed in this vein, modest and naturalistic at its best. Nothing can tell better the transparency of the rose leaf, its fragility, and the moist heat of the full blown flower, or the delicacy and perfect botanical character of a buttercup, given without laboriousness or loss of any most delicate trait.

Of Millet there is a magnificent picture, the "Flax Dresser," strongly marked by the painter's best qualities, exquisite in color, superb in action, and in execution all that he could make a picture; then a landscape—a wheat field with a single figure seated, sharpening his scythe, a canvas full of harvest gold; and a group of figures, "potato harvesters," scarcely less fine than the flax dresser, but darker in tone and less simple in composition. Besides these there are several chalk drawings by Millet, most interesting as showing how he approaches his subject.

Of another school is a remarkable drawing by Green, member of the Old Water Color Society of London, "The Derby Day," one of those dramatic mob pieces, huddles of men, women, and children of all classes and types, of which Hogarth set the example, and which no art has ever handled so well as the English—half literary, half naturalistic.

Of Alma Tadema, a much overrated man, we are convinced, there are several examples, of which the Sappho, much belauded by English literary journals, is the worst. Alceus reads to Sappho in a Greek theatre, the marble seats of which are so well painted that the figures make blots in the picture, and are lost and pale before the realism of the mere matter. No great painter ever made such a blunder. A small picture, "My Sister is Not Here," a theme borrowed from that true poet, Hamon, who told it with infinitely greater grace, is the best in painting, and least objectionable in its treatment throughout, of the seven pictures by this painter which Mr. Walters possesses, and is perhaps as good an example of his art as one could have. The "Catullus" is overloaded with detail of the still-life kind, and very much undercharged with animation and dramatic feeling. Of Gerôme, the best of the four (and to our mind, one of the painter's best) is an Arab boy holding two greyhounds in a leash on the desert—everything admirably painted, from the great drifted sandhills to the sharp-nosed hounds and the wind blown garments of the boy. It looks alive, dogs and keeper alike.

The catholicy of Mr. Walters's collection is not one merely of schools, but of tastes. Difficult indeed must be the man who finds nothing here which satisfies his ideal. An important landscape by Durand, a South American sunset by Church, landscapes by J. M. Hart and H. B. Jones, figure subjects by Darley, Eastman Johnson, and Woodville, portraits by Elliott, Stuart, Stone, and Baker, with statuary by Palmer

and by Rinehart, a sculptor whose brief career, so full of achievement and promise of better, owed its spring to Mr. Walters's appreciation, represent American art, though the example of Church is hardly one which represents the best side of that original painter.

Among the more important works is a small picture by Decamps, "The Suicide," which, though not indicating the great power of the artist, is very remarkable for the massive effect of light and shade and its extraordinary facility of execution. The dead man lies on his cot, with a burst of sunshine falling on his chest and shoulder—a warm golden light, beyond which all is deep mysterious shadow, almost in monochrome, and in vigor of execution and chiaroscuro like a Rembrandt. De Neuville and Detaille are both present in characteristic and good examples. Both are of the class of painters whom we gauge more by what they tell than by how they tell it; truth of representation necessarily takes precedence of style where they cannot walk together, and probably the whole field of art contains no other work so true to the details of war as the works of these two painters. A shade of idealism in conception or treatment, or even a strong idiosyncrasy in the latter, would damage *pro tanto* the realism of such painting, which (not necessarily in the low sense of realistic treatment) is an essential to its success. Even the dash and rapidity of execution, which is, in De Neuville, so marked, helps by sympathy the impression of hurry and struggle which are indispensable as an element in battle-painting. A battle-piece in the deliberate and minute execution of Chavet or Plassan would hardly impress us as an event of actual occurrence, as do the pictures of these painters. Of their master, and the leader, in order of time, if not of talent, of realistic battle-painters, Horace Vernet, there is also in Mr. Walters's collection a picture which had already in 1830 determined the type of battle-painting. That which divides broadly Vernet and his school from the battle painters of earlier times is not the studying of the actual accessories, as against the nude heroics of David, because Benjamin West had already painted a battle in which this was done, but in the utter rejection of all the conventions of composition or treatment; and if an arrangement is invented it is a case of the rule of *ars celere artem*—the study to arrange must not be suspected.

In passing, we wish to put in a protest against the use of this maxim in the universal application generally given. Latin aesthetics were very one-sided, and made little if any distinction between *art* and *artifice*, so that unless we may accept the sense of the dictum as that the perfection of artifice is to conceal the artifice employed, it becomes a complete misleader. True art, in the sense of the quest of the ideal, cannot be hidden—no one could for a moment imagine that a landscape of Turner, a composition of Raphael, or a picture of Delacroix portrayed something that happened *just so*. And the bigger and more unusual the character of the art, the further it divides itself

from the mock presentment of the thing represented. The noblest composition is that in which the harmonies of line and form are carried to the greatest perfection, though we know that no accidental grouping can approach the best of art, and the color of a great colorist is the more perfect the further it is removed (always being in harmony and pure) from the actual color of nature. If it were necessary to insist further, the aid of the analogies of art may be called in, for as singing (*e. g.*, opera) is not, and cannot be, even in its simplest forms, confounded with speech, so its analogue, color, in its distinctive art relations, cannot be for an instant confounded with realistic painting. In Mr. Walters's gallery one sees this practically in the comparison between the Neuville and the Delacroix which hangs not far away. Delacroix's is also a battle-piece, but one feels in it none of the emotion which the realistic battle-piece is intended to raise. The colorist translates his "combat" into a world where only the emotions proper to art can come: his combatants have a "go" which is fury and dramatic passion, but we know all the time, as we do when we see a scene in tragic opera, that there is nothing coming of it. Illusion, horror, grief, and tears belong to the lower arts, where, only, illusion is possible. Delacroix's work is one of the unflinching line of protests of the ideal against the materialistic tendencies of art. As the ideal is truer than the actual, so too is idealism in art truer than realism—deception is not among its ends.

Another great name in the French school was that of Couture, who contributes to the collection a characteristic picture, allegorical, which was a weakness of the painter, and always a mistake in one whom the technical ability dominates; but the peculiar system and facility of Couture may be well studied in it, and its technical qualities are sufficient without the allegory, or rather in spite of it. No picture should need explanation in words, and literary art is generally the weakest in its final hold on us, as it is generally the resource of inferior artistic faculties.

Belgian art is represented by Leys, Willems, Van Marcke, Van der Helst, Gallait, one of the most noteworthy of the historical school of the past generation, and Clays; German by the Achenbachs, Becker, Hiddeman, Kurzbauer, Pettenkofer, Preyer, Munkacsy, Müller; Spanish by Zamacois (with a picture which shows all the bloody and repulsive excellence of the realistic art), Jimenez, Fortuny (with a piece of audacity which does not succeed in being artistic, a portrait on a flat vermilion background, chosen evidently for its difficulty, and not overcoming it), and Villegas (by a piece of brilliant, gem-like realistic painting); English by the Green already mentioned; a Wm. Hunt still-life (water-color); a Milais which the artist would never have allowed to leave his studio if he cared more for his reputation than for his pocket; Herring; and an ambitious and theatrical picture by the most singularly overrated painter, so far as we know, in Eng-

land, Briton Riviere. This is called "Syria, the Night Watch," an old lion prowling in the moonlight among some ruins, followed by some quadrupeds of which we could not decide whether they were bears or lions, but more like the former—all going their rounds like educated beasts in the circus under a stage moonlight and in a stage ruin. It does not possess one of the great qualities of art, and the circus function of the king of beasts must have been suggested by his restless rounds in the cages of the Zoological Gardens. The art of Riviere appeals to that shallow literary sentiment which with the English public is more powerful than any perception of art. To turn from these tame wild beasts to Barye's magnificent drawings of animals, of which Mr. Walters has thirteen, besides, among minor bronzes, a magnificent group in bronze, cast in *cire perdue*, of a tiger hunt, tigers and an elephant, is a lesson in art. Here is nature told in an art which has no need of artifice or extraneous sentiment—water-color used as a master uses it, to tell his facts; subtly modelled, every form told as in sculpture, no pettiness, hide-textures, or attempt at realism; the beast *felt* out, his action unchecked, or his lying in wait full of treacherous preparation clearly evident, easy telling of what is too well known to need petty arts to make it pass muster, or moonlight solitudes to make it terrible.

We do not know to what school Knobels assigns himself, but he has given here one of his happiest pictures, "Mud Pies," with a pleasant landscape and his inevitable hogs, in the distance; however, the children as happy and as jolly as can be, painted largely and in the main so well that one can hardly insist on the conventional and mechanical touch which is the same everywhere and not in all cases appropriate. Here is Schreyer, too, hovering between schools and almost, we might say, between good art and claptrap, always repeating himself with immaterial variations. Here, too, is the best picture we can recall of Fromentin, "Camp in the Altas," a long line of Éd. Frère's peasant biographies, a Vautier, the inevitable Swiss genre painter, unvarying and equable.

But the peculiar triumph of the collection, if one thing may be singled out, is a group of landscapes, the "Givre" of Rousseau, in which with a rapidity and largeness of execution we remember in no other of his pictures, he has challenged Dupré on his own best effect (and to see how well he has succeeded one must go to the gallery's length to study the picture); a Dupré, "The Old Oak," which meets Diaz on his chosen ground, which Diaz might have been glad to own, and which tries the open landscape subject and method of treatment and execution of Rousseau. Except the last, an "Effect of Autumn," they are all large and are all important pictures. Then there is a magnificent Dupré, dated 1836, which has the quality of a Ruysdael. Three excellent Daubignys will only demand repetition of what we had to say of that painter weeks ago; and who visits the collection will be unfortunate if he misses a pen-and-ink drawing of a mass of trees by Rousseau.

A (Not Quite Harmonious) Symposium of Critics.

From the *Critic and Good Literature's* notice of a 'A Latter Day Saint':

"When a story so worthless in all respects as A LATTER DAY SAINT appears with the imprint of reputable publishers, one hesitates whether to ignore or to denounce it. The book is not only naughty, but poor; not only wicked, but silly; not only unjust and unjustifiable, but

uninteresting; not only bad, but stupid. The critic who is obliged to read a novel of Zola's does not feel himself seriously contaminated. But the reader of A LATTER DAY SAINT feels contaminated through and through with the low, petty, mean, base views of life that it presents. You may throw the book into the fire, but you cannot shake the dust of it from your soul."

From the *Nation's* notice of the same book:

"Opens happily a new series of American novels. Utters philosophy and sarcasm with a piquancy and good temper which recalls Thackeray's lighter manner without echoing it. The amusement afforded by the frank recital of a

career glorious or inglorious, according to the point of view, is heightened in that of the conversion."

From the N. Y. Tribune's notice of the same book:

"It is deftly put together, its points are well made, and its implied satire is good. The cold and debased glitter which becomes such a story and such a heroine is well preserved throughout. There is not a little art in the consistency with which Ethel's heart of stone and forehead of brass are kept to the fore."

HENRY HOLT & CO., Publishers, N. Y.

